MEMOIRS OF NICHOLAS POUSSIN:

With a Portrait of that eminent French Painter.

NICHOLAS POUSSIN was born at Andely, a town of Normandy, in France, in the year 1594. His family however were originally of Soiſſons; in which city there were ſome of his relations officers in the Preſidial court. John Pouſſin, his father, was of noble extraction, but born to a very ſmall eſtate. His ſon, ſeeing the narrowneſs of his circumſtances, determined to ſet up for himſelf as ſoon as poſſible, and choſe painting for his profeſſion, having naturally a ſtrong inclination to that art. At eighteen, he went to Paris, to learn the rudiments of it. A Poictovin lord, who had taken a liking to him, put him to Ferdinand, a face-painter, whom Pouſſin left in three months to place himſelf with Lallemant, with whom he ſtayed but a month: he ſaw he ſhould never learn any thing from ſuch maſters, and he reſolved not to loſe his time with them; believing he ſhould profit more by ſtudying the works of great maſters, than by the diſcipline of ordinary painters. He worked a while in diſtemper, and did it with extraordinary facility. The cavalier Marino being at that time in Paris, and knowing Pouſſin's genius was above the ſmall performances he was employed about, perſuaded him to go in his company to Italy: Pouſſin had before made two vain attempts to undertake that journey, yet by ſome means or other he was hindered from accepting the advantage of this opportunity. However, he promiſed to follow in a ſhort time. And he was as good as his promiſe, though not till he had drawn ſeveral other pictures in Paris, among which was the death of the Virgin for the church of Notre-Dame. Having finiſhed his buſineſs, he ſet out for Rome, in his thirtieth year.

He there met with his friend, Marino, who was glad to ſee him; and, to be as ſerviceable as he could, recommended him to cardinal Barberini, who deſired to be acquainted with him. Yet, ſomehow or other, he did not emerge, and could ſcarcely maintain himſelf. He was forced to part with his works for ſo little, as would hardly pay for his colours: however, his courage did not fail him; he minded his ſtudies aſſiduouſly, reſolving, whatever came of it, to make himſelf maſter of his profeſſion: he had little money to ſpend, and therefore the more leiſure to retire by himſelf, and deſign the beautiful things in Rome, as well antiquities as the works of the famous Roman painters. It is ſaid, he at firſt copied ſome of Titian's pieces, with whoſe colouring, and the touches of whoſe landſcapes, he was infinitely pleaſed. Indeed, it is obſervable, that his firſt pieces are painted with a better *goût* of colours than his laſt. But he ſoon ſhowed, by his performances, that, generally ſpeaking, he did not much value the part of colouring; or thought he knew enough of it, to make his pictures as perfect as he intended. He had ſtudied the beauties of the antique, the elegance, the grand guſto, the correctneſs, the variety of proportions, the adjuſtments, the order of the draperies, the nobleneſs, the fine air and boldneſs of the heads; the manners, cuſtoms of times and places, and every thing that was beautiful in the remains of ancient ſculpture, to ſuch a degree, that one can never enough admire the exactneſs with which he has enriched his painting in all thoſe parts of the art.

He uſed frequently to examine the ancient ſculptures in the vineyards about Rome, and this confirmed him more and more in the love of thoſe antiquities. He would ſpend ſeveral days together in making reflections upon them by himſelf. It was in theſe retirements that he conſidered the extraordinary effects of nature with re-

ſpect to landſcapes, that he deſigned his animals, his diſtances, his trees, and every thing excellent that was agreeable to his guſto. Beſide that, Pouſſin ſtudied the antique exactly, he alſo made curious obſervations on the works of Raphael and Domenichino; who of all painters, in his opinion, invented beſt, deſigned moſt correctly, and expreſſed the paſſions moſt vigorouſly: three things, which Pouſſin eſteemed the moſt eſſential parts of painting. He neglected nothing that could render his knowledge in theſe three parts perfect: he was altogether as curious about the general expreſſion of his ſubjects, which he has adorned with every thing that he thought would excite the attention of the learned. He left no grand compoſitions behind him; and all the reaſon we can give for it is, that he had no opportunity to do them; for we cannot imagine but it was chance only that made him apply himſelf wholly to eaſel pieces, of a bigneſs proper for a cabinet, ſuch as the curious required of him.

Louis XIII, and de Noyers, miniſter of ſtate and ſuperintendant of the buildings, wrote to him at Rome to oblige him to return to France: he conſented to it with great reluctance. He had a penſion aſſigned him, and a lodging ready furniſhed at the Tuilleries. He drew the picture of 'the Lord's Supper,' for the chapel of the caſtle of St. Germain, and that which is in the jeſuit's noviciate at Paris. He began 'the Labours of Hercules,' in the gallery of the Louvre: but Vouet's ſchool railing at him and his works, put him out of humour with his own country. He was alſo weary of the tumultuous way of living at Paris, which never agreed with him; wherefore he ſecretly reſolved to return to Rome, pretending he went to ſettle his domeſtic affairs and fetch his wife: but when he got there, whether or not he found himſelf as in his center, or was quite put off from any thought of returning to France by the deaths of Richelieu and the king, which happened about that time, he never left Italy afterward. He continued working on his eaſel pieces, and ſent them from Rome to Paris; the French buying them every where as faſt as they laid hands on them, if they were to be bought for money, valuing his productions as much as thoſe of Raphael.

Pouſſin having lived happily to his ſeventy-firſt year, died paralytic in 1665. He married Gaſper's ſiſter, by whom he had no children. His eſtate amounted to no more than ſixty thouſand livres; but he valued his eaſe above riches, and preferred his abode at Rome, where he lived, without ambition, to making his fortune elſewhere *. He never made words about the price of his pictures; he put down his rates at the back of the canvas, and it was always given him. He had no diſciple.

* Biſhop Maſſini, who was afterward a cardinal, ſtaying once on a viſit to him till it was dark, Pouſſin took the candle in his hand, lighted him down ſtairs, and waited upon him to his coach. The prelate was ſorry to ſee him do it himſelf, and could not help ſaying, 'I very much pity you, monſieur Pouſſin, that you have not one ſervant.' 'And I pity you more, my lord,' replied Pouſſin, 'that you have ſo many.'

THE MARRIAGE: A TALE FROM THE ITALIAN.

IN a ſmall town of Romagna, there was a man in good circumſtances, who had an only daughter, the ſole heireſs to all his property. Her age was near ſixteen; and beſide her being very rich, ſhe was alſo handſome, and endowed with thoſe accompliſhments that well educated and reſpectable young ladies are wont to poſſeſs; therefore ſhe was ſought in marriage by all the principal young men of the town. Her father perceived that the great expectations ariſing from her fortune, were the chief inducements

for all the ſuitors; and none correſponded to his wiſhes, either in character or temper. One was of an illuſtrious family, which had fallen from its ſplendour through the imprudence of its anceſtors, and he wiſhed to reſtore it to its former luſtre by this marriage; but had learnt from his ideas of nobility, nothing but a vain pride, and a deteſtation of all occupation, as if idleneſs was the moſt brilliant quality that diſtinguiſhed a nobleman. Another had paſſed ſeveral years in the ſtudy of laws; but having been far from the eyes of his friends, he had made greater progreſs in vice and immorality from the bad examples he had been ſurrounded with, than in the ſtudies he had been ſent to purſue. Another, mad after the gaming-table, threw away whole days, and even part of his nights at his darling paſtime. Another, in love with his ſweet perſon, employed the greateſt part of the day at his toilet; and, piquing himſelf in being the firſt to follow all the neweſt faſhions, he with his affected enticements, and effeminate manners, aſpired to the conqueſt of thoſe vain girls that reſembled him. Another, by his hot and fiery temper, deſtroyed all hopes of the young lady's happineſs. And finally, one more, by his dulneſs and ſtupidity was an object of contempt to his witty countrymen. Therefore, the wiſe father found in all thoſe gentlemen, faults too great to be compatible with the deſire which he had of procuring to his daughter real and permanent felicity.

Occupied with theſe thoughts, he called her to a ſerious converſation; and ſaid:—You well know, my dear daughter, that the ſole comfort of my old age is placed in you, and you likewiſe know, with what tender affection I love you. But the time approaches when you muſt chooſe a partner for life, and I muſt perhaps bear to ſee you taken from me, carried to another houſe, and become one of quite another family. In a choice, on which is to depend the happineſs or miſery of your whole life, heaven forbid I ſhould imitate thoſe cruel unfeeling fathers who wiſh to tyrannize over the will of their children! The huſband who is to be united to you for life, ſhall be choſen by you. But as you ſee of what conſequence ſuch a choice is, I only require, in return for the love I bear you, that the experience I have acquired from age may aſſiſt you, who from your tender years cannot yet have acquired any, and that you may attend to my advice. The care I have had of you till now, and the retired life you have led, far from the communication and buſtle of the world, induce me to think that your heart is ſtill diſengaged. Yet I wiſh to know whether that is the caſe or not; and you muſt acquaint me with the truth, without reſerve, as I do not mean to control your wiſhes, if they are directed to any one, but only to guide them.

His daughter having declared that her heart was ſtill free, and that ſhe would never depart from her beloved father's advice, he proceeded:—You muſt then know, that there are many who are deſirous of obtaining your hand; but of all thoſe who have applied to me for it, I ſee none that I either like or think proper for you. The precepts I have inſtilled in you, will, I flatter myſelf, prevent you from thinking to aſpire to a perſon that is more noble or more illuſtrious than yourſelf. A private citizen's daughter as you are, you will not riſe from your ſtation in the leaſt, by the riches I am diſpoſed to leave you; and if you ſhould marry ſome nobleman, you would only gain this, that you could no longer live comfortably with your old friends, becauſe your huſband would not allow it, nor could you aſſociate with ladies of rank, who were born your ſuperiors, becauſe you would be rejected by them; or if tolerated, it would be with ſcorn and contempt. Between married people, equality of rank is indiſpenſable, or at leaſt as near as conveniently can

be; the ſame may be ſaid of age and condition, in order to obtain happineſs; and yet that does not ſuffice. It is neceſſary to examine the character of the perſon you are going to be joined to in ſuch ſolemn bonds, and to whom you are to truſt your fortune and perſon for ever. A gambler, a rake, a brute, a knave, a rogue, a miſer, or an idle fellow; an effeminate man, one given to ſloth or thoughtleſſneſs; a ſilly fellow, or a ſpendthrift, could make you paſs only ſad hours and unhappy days. Now of all thoſe young men I know here, who might aſpire to your hand, I cannot diſcover one that is not tainted with one or other of theſe faults. Hear then a thought of mine. I fancy it will be neceſſary for us to go to a larger town than this. There, among a great number of perſons, it will be eaſier to make a choice, and heaven may with greater facility, diſcover to you he who is to be the cauſe of your comfort and happineſs through life. And if heaven ſhould ordain that your hand was to be the reward of the virtue of ſome one unjuſtly perſecuted by fortune, how happy ſhould I be, my dear daughter! Therefore you muſt not care whether your intended huſband is favoured by fortune or not: the great property which heaven has beſtowed upon me, and which is ſoon to be yours, will be ſufficient for you as a citizen's daughter to live in comfort with your huſband, let him be who he will.

His daughter ſhedding a torrent of tears of tenderneſs, ſaid:—If I am highly indebted to you, my father, for this life which I owe you, I am ſtill more ſo for your love, and for the care with which you have watched over my tender and unexperienced age. And to whom can I better truſt myſelf than to you? I therefore give myſelf entirely up to your guidance, care, and love. And if heaven ſhould diſpoſe that your property is to become the reward of diſtreſſed virtue, what could I wiſh for more, but that he to whom it happened, ſhould never have occaſion to repent having acquired me at the ſame time? But I hope the more that he would not have occaſion to repent it, as by ſuch means it would be eaſier to prevail on him to come and live with you, as a ſon, and I then ſhould never be deprived of the happineſs of your company, and the advantage of your counſels.

Her father felt a ſweet tranſport of lively joy; he embraced his daughter, and kiſſed her tenderly; then ſaid, May heaven keep you always in ſuch virtuous and noble ſentiments, my dear child, and you will always make your father as happy as you do now.—He then made every neceſſary preparation, and ſet out with her for Rome. As ſoon as he arrived there, he diligently began to look about for a perſon proper to be his daughter's huſband. After long and careful reſearches, he ſaid to her, I think I have found at laſt one who may make you happy. The ſon of an attorney, who is famous for merit and integrity, and himſelf a prudent young man, who ſtudying his father's profeſſion, promiſes by his application and talents, to equal him in reputation, is deſirous of obtaining your hand. It only remains to ſee, whether he pleaſes you: I ſhall find means that you may ſee him, and from his converſation we ſhall then diſcover his mind as well as the appearance of his perſon. But, my dear daughter, I muſt require a ſacrifice, which I promiſe myſelf to obtain from your virtuous diſpoſition. I have already told you, that all my fortune ſhould belong to you ſome day; nor is there certainly any perſon in the world to whom I have thought I could better leave it. But ſomething extraordinary that happened this morning, makes me wiſh that a part of it ſhould be given to another perſon. As I was this morning at the houſe of a banker, who is a friend of mine, I ſaw a young man about twenty years of age, of a comely perſon, and genteel behaviour, who prepoſſeſſed me in his favour,

and therefore I was induced to aſk the banker whether he was his ſon; he ſaid no, but that he was the ſon of a very honeſt merchant, whom I had known formerly here in Rome; but who had loſt, from ſevere misfortunes, all that he was worth in the world, and died through grief. He left a wife and this ſon, added the banker; and I have taken him as clerk in my houſe, that he may ſupport himſelf and his mother out of his gains. He therefore does all in his power for her; and as I never had a more attentive, clever, nor better behaved young man, I have lately increaſed his ſalary: but his good morals and many virtues deſerve a much better fortune. Affected at this account, I was aſhamed of myſelf for having neglected to viſit the mother, whom I had formerly been acquainted with, and whom I knew to be a very ſenſible and virtuous woman, therefore no longer delayed to fulfil that duty. On calling upon her, I found her alone; and having made myſelf known to her, I turned the converſation upon her paſt events, and was on the point of ſhedding tears of tenderneſs, at finding with what reſignation ſhe bore her misfortunes, and with what ſentiments of gratitude ſhe bleſſed heaven, for having left her ſo dutiful and beloved a ſon: after the loſs of her huſband and her fortune, he by his excellent behaviour, compenſated all her ills.—I well know, my dear daughter, what would be the ſenſations of your grateful heart, ſhould we, if reduced to ſuch diſtreſs, find relief from the generoſity of ſome friend: and even without that thought, I firmly hope your beneficent heart would not ſuffer two ſuch virtuous perſons to be left in ſo unmerited and cruel a ſtate. I therefore think of employing a part of my fortune to their relief. You will ſtill have enough left; and if the young man I have propoſed to you ſhould ſeem to pleaſe you, as he is rich enough, you need not wiſh for more.

The daughter affected at one part of this diſcourſe, and troubled at the other, anſwered:—Your property, ſir, waits entirely your diſpoſal; and I do not think that a better opportunity can offer to employ what part of it you chooſe. But I am very ſorry that, if this young man is as virtuous as you deſcribe him, you do not think of beſtowing on him, rather than on any one elſe, all your fortune and me too. Yet I imagine that your intention was ſuch once. But perhaps you think now that your property would be ill beſtowed, if he were to have me alſo with it.

Admirable and incomparable girl! ſaid the father, what thanks do I not owe to heaven for having given thee to me, with ſuch virtuous ſentiments! Far from thinking that you could be a burden to him, I think you are the greateſt gift that could be made to the beſt young man living. But how could I have thought to propoſe you to marry a man in his ſituation; I muſt have ſtaid till you propoſed it yourſelf. You ſhall therefore ſee them both, and chooſe between them; for although the latter has not ſeen you yet, I do not doubt but he will think himſelf the happieſt of men if he obtains you in marriage. But that you may have no room to repent your choice, I wiſh you to ſee the other alſo, whom I ſhall have no objection to, ſhould you give him the preference.

The prudent father put his ſcheme in execution; he ſought an opportunity to introduce both the young men to the acquaintance of his daughter, that ſhe might diſcover their diſpoſitions from their converſation and demeanor. Although the attorney's ſon was found worthy of notice for ſeveral reaſons, the virtuous conduct of the young clerk, was found deſerving preference; and with perfect ſatisfaction of both parties, the marriage was celebrated—than which never a more joyful one was ſeen, nor of a more permanent felicity known.

REMARKS *on the* PHILOSOPHY *of* LOCKE, *and other Metaphyſical Writers.*

[By M. GARAT, Profeſſor in the Normal Schools in France.]

THE philoſopher that ranks next to Bacon in the Hiſtory of the Analyſis of the Human Underſtanding, is the celebrated Locke. This author does not preſent himſelf to our imaginations ſurrounded with all thoſe attributes of grand and inventive genius that ſhed a luſtre round the immortal chancellor of England. It ſeems, alſo, that he paſſed a great part of his life, without even ſuſpecting that he was gifted with any extraordinary talents, or deſtined to occupy a diſtinguiſhed place among the inſtructors of mankind. He happened once to be preſent at a very warm and animating diſpute that took place between ſome eminent *literati*, without taking any part in the converſation himſelf: he continued to obſerve the ſentiments and the language of the diſputants, and ſoon perceived that a conteſt which ſeemed to be endleſs, was nothing more than a diſpute about words, and that a proper explanation and definition of the terms employed in the arguments of the combatants would inſtantly reſtore peace and harmony between them. This reflection gave birth to his great work on the human underſtanding; in it he traces the origin of our ideas: he demonſtrates, perhaps with too much prolixity, that there is no ſuch thing as innate ideas: he endeavours to find out how ideas may ariſe, and form themſelves in the underſtanding, which, from the firſt days of our infancy, is as deſtitute of characters and images, as the unwrought marble when it is only removed from the quarry. In this manner, by examining the nature of our thoughts at their ſource, and tracing them in their courſe, he has diſcovered by what degrees ſenſations become notions. In his reaſoning he follows Bacon, but he enters into a greater variety of detail, and proves, with more abundant demonſtration than that philoſopher, the fatal influence which the abuſe of words exerciſes over our reaſonings and diſquiſitions on matters of general inveſtigation. He has fixed at once, with a ſteady and unerring hand, the foundation of human knowledge, and the impaſſable boundaries of its extent.

When Locke began his great work on the Human Underſtanding, he was compelled to find his way in the dark. Scarce had he finiſhed it, when he found himſelf, in his own eyes, as it were, another man: his mind, which, for a long time, had not ventured to explore any ſubject, now unfolded its powers on a boundleſs variety of diſcuſſions, and diſplayed in them all, not the pride, but the confidence which reſults from grand diſcoveries. It was a confidence that never deluded or deceived. The firſt ſubject that came under his examination, and which he treats with the conſciouſneſs of his own ſtrength, is the moſt important that can intereſt the human ſpecies; that is, an inquiry into the legitimate foundations of civil government. The analyſis of the human underſtanding has, almoſt at its birth, diſcovered the doctrine of the natural rights of mankind; and it is becauſe this art had been in exiſtence that France has become free *.

What circumſtance can inſpire a higher idea of the merit of this ſpecies of knowledge? The philoſopher that wiſhes nations to enjoy the higheſt ſtate of freedom, muſt devote his attention to the means of making men more enlightened and more vir-

* The original of this article was written in the year 1796.

tuous; and with this view Locke compoſed a treatiſe on education, which is not ſo much celebrated as his eſſay on government, but is equally profound, bold, and luminous, in which he annihilates a maſs of errors, conſecrated by time and uſage, that formerly prepared the corruption of mankind, by means of the miſeries of their youth: in their place he ſubſtitutes views and precepts calculated to render inſtruction eaſy, to make knowledge ſubſervient to reaſon, and reaſon to the happineſs of man. The author of Emilius does honour to himſelf, and to the work of Locke, by drawing ſome of his maxims from it, as he had formerly done from the treatiſe on civil government. By no other writer have the principles of toleration, which is now the religion of all enlightened and virtuous men, been laid down with reaſoning more irrefragable than in ſome detached pieces of Locke; and Sydenham, a phyſician celebrated over Europe, oftentimes acknowledged, that it was to the friendſhip and the converſation of Locke he had been, in a great meaſure, indebted for that talent of obſervation which he evinced during his attendance on the ſick: it was a talent which if others ſhall poſſeſs in an eminent degree, an art which has long been the reſource of empirics, may be applied to the comfort of life, and the prolongation of its duration.

The name of Charles Bonnet does not belong to the hiſtory of intellectual philoſophy in an equal degree with the names of Bacon and of Locke, and I do not imagine that he will ever be eſtimated in the ſame degree with thoſe renowned philoſophers: nevertheleſs, his *Analyſe des Facultés de l'Ame* is a book of great merit, if it is not a work of the higheſt order among the productions of genius. It is tarniſhed by many defects; but even the defects of the author proceed from the abuſe of his ſenſe and penetration, and the wonderful effects of his method and arrangement. He ſeems deſirous of penetrating beyond the boundaries of the human mind: he begins with the ſpirituality of mankind, and ends with their reſurrection; ſubjects on which unaſſiſted human reaſon is involved in endleſs darkneſs. But between the two abyſſes into which he endeavours to penetrate, and in which he bewilders himſelf, he illumines the road by the rays of a powerful and conſtant light. No writer was better acquainted with the mechaniſm of the mind, or made more frequent uſe of the faculties of the underſtanding, like well arranged ſprings, diſpoſed and adapted for his purpoſe. Where Locke is diffuſe, he is cloſe and conciſe; he even affects too much to appear ſo; and we ſometimes imagine that we hear the rattling of the links of the confined chain of his ideas. There are, however, two remarkable things in his works which prove the excellence of his method. Charles Bonnet felt an invincible inclination to the prejudices of ſuperſtition, while his method, like a ſtrong cable, which withſtands the moſt violent ſtorms of the imagination, conſtantly checks and draws him back to ſenſations to nature, and to truth. In him there is a mixture, and a kind of diſcordant oppoſition, of the ſpirit of Mallebranche, and the ſpirit of Locke, which defeat each other, and triumph alternately; but the ſpirit of Locke proves victorious more frequently than that of Mallebranche. Charles Bonnet had been blind for a long time, and during his whole life his ſight was very indifferent. Nevertheleſs, a ſight ſo feeble, and ſo near extinction, when directed toward every object of nature, ſeized on the moſt exact and faithful images, and his pencil has drawn the moſt animated and natural deſcriptions. His *Contemplation of Nature* is made up almoſt entirely of a ſeries of deſcriptions; but he deſcribes the forms and colours of every object with ſo much

truth, that we imagine we behold the ſame objects which he himſelf could ſcarcely ſee. In his conſiderations on organiſed bodies, the ſyſtem of infinite connections, which he adopts, is not perhaps an hypotheſis better eſtabliſhed than thoſe which he refutes; but the ſyſtems which he attacks, and that which he embraces, he explains and diſcuſſes with an accuracy of analyſis which gives to ideas forms as diſtinct and ſeparate, as thoſe which are aſſigned to bodies, and phyſical objects. He creates nothing, but he appreciates every thing that has been imagined by others with that ſuperiority and accuracy of judgment, which perhaps characteriſe as much the man of genius, as thoſe profound inventions which require to be verified by the approbation and aſſent of ages. Thoſe beings which ſeem to withdraw from the moſt piercing ſight—the inſects, are the ſubject which he choſe, by preference, for his obſervations; and his Views on Inſects and Foliage are much eſteemed and admired by the adepts in natural hiſtory.

I now come to Condillac, and I ſeem to arrive at a place of reſt after a fatiguing journey; imagine that I approach the light after traverſing regions of darkneſs, or roads but dimly and imperfectly lighted. I do not know if Condillac poſſeſſed either leſs, as much, or more original ideas, on the ſubject of the human intellect, than the philoſophers who have preceded him in the ſame career; but the views of others, which ſeem to become his own by the new light with which he exhibits them, and thoſe which are indiſputably his own, ſeem of themſelves to give to the *Analyſis of the Underſtanding* that degree of utility, which, by becoming evident and general, will ceaſe to be the object of conſtant argumentation and debate. Condillac was the firſt writer that procured for works uſually ſtyled metaphyſical, as many readers as are found for thoſe productions which are called works of taſte; and certainly it was not the charms of his ſtyle, which is ſtripped of every beauty except perſpicuity, that attracted and fixed the general attention and applauſe. It was owing to the lucid arrangement of his expreſſions and ideas, which repreſented every object without embelliſhment or diminution. He is not infected with the affectation of creating new words, which is one of the marks of a ſterile genius, but he employs, with ſo much judgment and preciſion, the ordinary terms of language, that, while he improves the human mind by his inſtructions, he adds a new force and elegance to his native tongue. Being invited, on account of the celebrity which he had acquired over Europe, to undertake the education of the infant duke of Parma, he compoſed works for the inſtruction of his pupil, which promiſe to produce a revolution in the general practice of the art of conveying inſtruction. In order to complete a courſe of ſtudies for his pupil, he compoſed a grammar, an art of thinking and of reaſoning, and a general hiſtory of mankind and of empires: his method is not only adequate to departments of literature ſo widely different from each other, but it diſplays itſelf on every ſubject with the ſtriking characteriſtics of a ſuperiority that conceals its firſt approaches, and continues to diſcover its ſtrength and magnitude at every further advance. He compoſed a grammar; and as a grammarian, he ranks conſiderably above Dumarſais. He wrote an Art of Reaſoning, which is not the futile art of forming ſyllogiſms and enthymems, but the ſublime art of thoſe men, whoſe names are ſcarcely known to the nations on which they have conferred ſo many benefits, the learned, I mean, who, ſince the time of Galileo, have made numerous and important diſcoveries, and have extended the power and the felicity of mankind. He likewiſe wrote a hiſtory; and, if we wiſh to ſeek in hiſtory any other intereſt be-

ſide that of a romance or a drama, if we can pardon the dryneſs of his narratives, which are deſtitute of all imagination, and of every beauty of ſtyle,—if we are deſirous of ſeeking in his hiſtory, and extracting from it, the information which leads to grand diſcoveries in legiſlation, in morals, and the arts and ſciences, from all theſe detached parts of the entire courſe of ſtudies, drawn up for the inſtruction of the infant duke of Parma, a hiſtory might be compoſed on the ſubject of the arts and ſciences, on morals and legiſlation, which ſhould be more abundant in the true ſpirit of philoſophy, than any work of the kind that has appeared among the learned nations of Europe. In his work on the Art of Reaſoning, which I mention *en paſſant*, when he inveſtigates the ſubjects diſcuſſed by Newton and Kepler, he does not appear as their follower, but their companion; he is more their equal than their admirer: when he explains their diſcoveries, he penetrates into all the ſecrets of their genius, which he ſeems to communicate to his readers. He was the firſt of all, and perhaps the only perſon, who perceived that the grand ſyſtem of the univerſe, the diſcovery of which is the proudeſt monument of the human mind, is nothing more than a happy application of the ſimpleſt principles of mechanics. On his return to France, when he arrived at Paris, the ſubject of every book, and even of every circle, was the principles of political economy, which ought to direct the adminiſtration, and enrich the inhabitants of every country. Being tired of the empty verboſity of the diſputants, on a ſubject which ought to be determinate in its fundamental principles, and obvious to every capacity, Condillac endeavoured to ſubject them to a freſh examination; an attempt which, he was perſuaded, might tend to promote the general improvement of ſociety. The economiſts had framed a language for themſelves, but it had the misfortune to be underſtood only by a few adepts; and their principles, though excellent in other reſpects, remained in a ſtate of obſcurity, except to their diſciples, and were of courſe expoſed to the ridicule of a frivolous world, inſtead of exciting their admiration. Condillac undertook the inveſtigation of the ſame ſubject, without embarraſſing his attention by reading the works of different authors who treated of political economy before him. He applied his method to queſtions which never occupied his attention before. Notwithſtanding the labours of many eminent men, who were occupied with theſe queſtions as the only object of their attention, Condillac reſolved them with a ſimplicity and perſpicuity that excite our ſurpriſe leſs at their explanation, than at the imaginary difficulties that ſurrounded them: the author ſeems to ſay nothing but trite and common things, while he inveſtigates the moſt intricate ſubjects, the doctrine of exchanges, ſpecie, &c. and, as a pure and ſteady light, reveals every thing without being remarked itſelf: ſo the mind of Condillac exhibits the true nature of every ſubject, without making any parade of his own talents. The economiſts attacked with fury a work which was intended to the defence of their opinions; but it ſeems they were diſpleaſed at being ſupported with more ability by a ſtranger than by any of their own body. Condillac, who was both ſhrewd and ſimple, contented himſelf with ſaying to them, *The merit of the Defence is not my own, it belongs ſolely to my method.* I confeſs that I am carried away by my zeal when I am ſpeaking of writers that I admire; but they are the inventors of the ſcience which it is my duty to unfold to my pupils and fellow citizens. Whatever may be wanting in my lectures, will be found in the writings of the eminent philoſophers that I have mentioned. For a period of twenty years, I have been

ſtruck with admiration at their profound knowledge, and, though deſtined by my natural inclinations to other departments of ſcience, I have been inceſſantly drawn back to the works they have written, and to the matter of their inveſtigations. I have meditated on them twenty years, though I have not written a ſingle line on the ſubject which I recommend to your attention, and which ſhall be the object of my future writings. When the cruel ax was ſuſpended over our heads during the calamitous period we have all witneſſed, my regret at the proſpect of death was occaſioned by the apprehenſion of dying, without leaving on the ſcaffold the work which had long employed my meditations.

The HISTORY *of* LEOPOLD de CIRCE'; *or, The* EFFECTS *of* ATHEISM.

Concluded from Page 135.

NOTWITHSTANDING the momentary ſatisfaction which uſually attends triumphant guilt, Leopold found himſelf in no enviable ſituation. The marquis did not fail to diſcover the loſs of his money, and being unable to ſettle his attention on any proper object of ſuſpicion, he naturally conſulted his ſon in ſo perplexing an emergency. On this occaſion, Leopold wiſhing to ſcreen his own infamy, and at the ſame time to gratify his malice, repreſented to his father that the theft muſt have been committed by an old ſervant in the family, who was known to have ſaved ſome money from his earnings, and whom Leopold and the abbé deteſted, becauſe they conſidered him as a ſpy on their guilty proceedings. The unfortunate old man was accordingly interrogated by the marquis, and a conſiderable ſum being found in his poſſeſſion, that was thought to be ſufficient evidence againſt him: he perſevered, however, in aſſerting his innocence, and the marquis, who was of a humane and forgiving temper, contented himſelf with diſmiſſing him from his ſervice. The abbé was ſhortly after acquainted with this piece of villainy, and, inſtead of reprimanding his pupil, congratulated him on the improvement which he made in every ſpecies of wickedneſs. You are, ſaid he to Leopold, a pupil worthy of me in every reſpect; continue to follow my maxims, and always remember to turn every little event to your own intereſt: that is a maxim which I have invariably cheriſhed, and by adopting the ſame ſentiments, you will ſteer ſecurely through life in perfect eaſe and happineſs.

The marchioneſs de Circé, after ſhe was deprived of both her daughters, enjoyed very little comfort or ſatisfaction; her health began to be conſiderably impaired, and the marquis imagining that a change of ſituation might prove beneficial, prevailed on her, after much intreaty, to conſent to remove to Paris, and paſs the winter in that capital. The numerous viſits ſhe was expoſed to tended ſtill further to injure her health; and the marquis, to obviate this inconvenience, reduced the number, by confining them to a few particular friends.

A few days after his arrival in Paris, a young woman, dreſt very meanly, and holding an infant in her arms, called on Leopold, and appeared before him in tears, and with every mark of ſorrow and diſtreſs. Notwithſtanding her wretched attire, and haggard appearance, he ſoon recogniſed his ſiſter Amelia, the unhappy victim of his wicked advice, and the artifices of his abandoned preceptor. She revealed to him the wretchedneſs and poverty of Merval, and her own conſequent diſtreſs, which compelled her to have recourſe to him for relief from the loweſt abyſs of miſery. Leopold did every thing

to comfort his unfortunate ſiſter, and aſſured her that he would prevail on his father to be reconciled to her, and to make ſome proviſion for the unhappy Merval, to whom ſhe had been married ſhortly after their precipitate flight. He then took the child from his ſiſter's arms, and went down with it to the apartment in which his parents were at that time. Their attention was naturally engaged by ſuch an object, and they aſked Leopold ſeveral queſtions reſpecting the child and its parents. In anſwer to their inquiries, Leopold informed them, that the mother of the infant was in the loweſt ebb of miſery, and was likely to periſh if not ſpeedily relieved by their kind aſſiſtance. The huſband of the unhappy woman, he ſaid, was at that moment on the bed of ſickneſs, and, of courſe, unable to be of any ſervice to his wife or his child. As for her parents, they were diſguſted with her for uniting herſelf with a man of inferior condition in life, and would ſpurn her from them with contempt, were ſhe to think of applying to them for mercy and forgiveneſs. The marquis and his lady were affected by this narrative, and the appearance of the child; and they both declared, that notwithſtanding the indiſcretion of the unfortunate young woman, ſhe was entitled to compaſſion and relief, becauſe no crime was of ſo deep a dye as not to be effaced by the tears of ſorrow and repentance. After this declaration, Leopold contrived to prepare their attention to the diſcovery which he was going to make, and, without much preamble, informed them that Amelia was the mother of the child which he had introduced into their preſence. His parents were ſtruck with horror at this unexpected declaration, and reſiſted, for a long time, all his applications in favour of Amelia; but being at length prevailed upon by his inceſſant importunities, their hearts relented, and they yielded to Leopold's petition, to have Amelia brought before them, and be again reſtored into their favour and affections. The unfortunate Amelia was accordingly introduced, and, after a very affecting interview, her forgiveneſs was ſealed by her parents, who felt a ſecret joy in recovering their loſt child. The marquis wiſhed her to give up all further thoughts of Merval; but Amelia would not conſent to abandon the man who poſſeſſed her affections, and had been ſolemnly united to her by the ceremonies of marriage. At laſt, the marquis began to relent, and promiſed his daughter to ſatisfy her in every reſpect with regard to the unhappy Merval. This was the only good action that Leopold had hitherto performed, and he felt the pure and unaffected joy on the occaſion, which never fails to attend a virtuous and meritorious action, though his heart had not been prepared for ſuch impreſſions by the previous inſtructions of the abandoned Dolcé. That villain, who had initiated his pupil into the rudiments of every vice, when he became acquainted with the reconciliation of Amelia and her parents, which had been accompliſhed under the auſpices of Leopold, did not fail to ridicule and attack him with every ſpecies of raillery and ſatire. You muſt be a great ſimpleton, ſaid he, thus to bring forward another heir for your father's property, which is immenſe, and might probably fall undivided into your hands. It is a piece of folly and miſconduct, for which I ſhall never forgive you. The marquis kept his word with regard to Merval, and, a few days after his reconciliation with Amelia, ſent a ſervant to convey him to his chateau. He was found to be ſo ill, that he was obliged to be conveyed in a litter, the motion of which was ſo ſlow, that night approached before Merval reached the marquis's. Amelia, in the mean time, was greatly diſtreſſed on his account; but, fearing to offend her

father, ſhe gave no viſible ſigns of her uneaſineſs. The ſervant that had been ſent for Merval, arrived at length, and announced his approach. The marquis, touched with compaſſion for the unhappy man, went out to meet him, and had him conveyed into an apartment. He attempted to ſupplicate the marquis in a humble poſture, but the latter prevented him, and deſired him to endeavour to take ſome repoſe. Amelia paid the moſt aſſiduous attention to her huſband during his illneſs, and had the ſatisfaction, at his requeſt, to gain the conſent of the marquis, that the ceremonial of marriage ſhould take place between them a ſecond time, according to the laws of France, as they exiſted at that period. This was a meaſure neceſſary to quiet the ſcruples of Amelia, and to ſecure, by that means, ſome proviſion for her child, which otherwiſe might be expoſed to the penalties of illegitimacy. Merval ſurvived the ceremony only three days, and expired in the arms of his wife, and in the preſence of the marquis, who was much affected by his repentance and reſignation. In order to get rid of the melancholy impreſſions which this event occaſioned, Leopold requeſted permiſſion to viſit the abbé, whom he had not ſeen ſince the arrival of Amelia. He was, moreover, deſirous of viſiting the unhappy Eleonora, who was kept in ſtrict confinement, under the directions of the abbé, ſince the fatal injury which ſhe had received from her brother. On his arrival the abbé informed him, that his unhappy ſiſter had been for ſome time in a ſtate of mental derangement; that, if he was deſirous of ſeeing her, he might repair to madame Leon's, where ſhe was confined, and that he needed not be alarmed reſpecting diſcovery, as madame Leon was acquainted with every circumſtance of the buſineſs, and was entirely in his intereſt. After this declaration, Leopold ſet out for madame Leon's, who received him with a cold and ſtudied politeneſs. He inquired about Eleonora, and was informed that her ſituation was very deplorable, but that ſhe had, for a few days paſt, ſome lucid intervals, which announced ſome hopes of her recovery. She refuſed to permit Leopold to ſee his ſiſter on the day of his arrival at her houſe, and requeſted him to wait till the following morning. She then inquired after the abbé, and declared that, had ſhe not been bound by a ſolemn oath, ſhe would reſtore Eleonora to her friends, and betray both Leopold and his preceptor, notwithſtanding the friendſhip ſhe profeſſed for the latter. Leopold was alarmed at this confeſſion, and endeavoured to pacify madame Leon, who was more influenced by the hopes of pecuniary reward for her ſervices, than by any ſuggeſtions of Leopold; and that conſideration only kept her true to her engagement. The following morning Leopold roſe betimes, and went down to the apartment in which he had ſeen madame Leon the day before. The firſt object that preſented itſelf was the unfortunate Eleonora, who turned round immediately when Leopold entered the room. Leopold continued to look on her without uttering a word; ſhe was dreadfully emaciated, and her eyes continued to ſtray wildly from one object to another. On ſeeing Leopold ſhe uttered a loud ſhriek, and ſunk into the arms of madame Leon. 'Save me,' cried ſhe, 'from that odious monſter; he comes to take my life, after depriving me of my honour; and his hands are ſtained with the blood of his father and mother.' She then fell into convulſions, and madame Leon prevailed on Leopold to depart, declaring that his unlucky viſit had totally diſſipated the hopes ſhe had entertained of his ſiſter's recovery. Leopold was ſo much affected by this diſtreſſing ſcene, that he avoided any further repetition of it: he departed ſuddenly, without taking any notice of madame Leon,

and returned to the abbé, and acquainted him with the afflicting circumſtances which he had witneſſed.

In the mean time, the marchioneſs felt herſelf grievouſly depreſſed in health and ſpirits, from the events that took place in her family: ſhe grew worſe every day, and after ſome time was confined to her bed. Amelia was conſtantly with her mother, and dedicated all her time and attention to the marchioneſs and her own child. The winter paſſed in this manner, and the marquis had ſome hopes that the return of ſpring would produce a favourable alteration in his lady's health. In this expectation he was diſappointed; her malady increaſed every day, and, about the beginning of March, ſhe breathed her laſt, diſplaying at her death, as ſhe had during her life, the utmoſt piety and reſignation. Amelia was ſenſibly afflicted by her loſs; but Leopold, whoſe heart had been hardened by his odious principles, felt neither ſorrow nor remorſe: he would have been glad that both his parents ſhould have deſcended into the grave, in order that he might be put in poſſeſſion of an ample fortune, and be furniſhed with every means of gratifying his guilty paſſions. Eleonora had coſt him a large ſum; he was, moreover, compelled to purchaſe the co-operation and the ſilence of his confederates; and, under ſuch circumſtances, he would be overjoyed at the idea of becoming his own maſter, and the uncontrolled poſſeſſor of a fortune ſuitable to his wiſhes.

About a month after the death of his mother, Leopold paid a viſit to the abbé; and the marquis, with his daughter Amelia, ſet out for his country-ſeat. When Leopold arrived at the abbé's, he demanded an account of his finances, and was immediately informed by the abbé that he had only 25 louis remaining of the ſum of which the marquis had been robbed. Leopold was rather ſtartled at ſuch a declaration, but, dreading to break with his quondam preceptor and aſſociate in iniquity, he diſcovered no ſigns of reſentment on the occaſion. He was moreover informed by the abbé, that it had been found expedient to pay madame Leon regularly in advance, conſidering the nature and peculiar difficulty of the taſk which ſhe had engaged to perform. She had written to him, that a phyſician of eminence had undertaken to reſtore Eleonora to her reaſon, but had previouſly demanded a fee of 50 louis, with which propoſal ſhe deemed it proper for Leopold to cloſe. The abbé, upon giving this intelligence to Leopold, adviſed him to diſpoſe of the jewels which he had taken from the marquis, in order to raiſe the ſum required. Leopold, ſeeing no other reſource, repaired to Paris, and ſold them to a Jew for 100 louis, though their real value was more than four times that ſum. He returned immediately to the abbé with the money, but not without ſome concern at being accidentally met in Paris by one of his father's ſervants. This circumſtance having been immediately revealed to the marquis, he ſent a meſſenger to the abbé to inquire into the reaſon of his ſon's abſence, and received for reply, that Leopold had never quitted his company during the time of his abſence from the chateau. This barefaced declaration rouſed the ſuſpicions of the marquis, and he continued ever afterward to harbour ſuſpicions both of the abbé and his own ſon. He therefore waited patiently till ſome event might take place that ſhould furniſh him with the means of ſeeing their characters in their true light.

In the mean time, madame Leon ſent a meſſenger to Dolcé with the information that Eleonora had recovered her reaſon, and though ſhe was ſtill in a ſtate of extreme debility, yet ſhe ardently wiſhed to ſee Leopold once more. Her brother, thinking that his refuſal might cauſe a relapſe into her former ſituation, and dreading a diſcovery from madame Leon, thought it proper to comply

with Eleonora's requeſt. He accordingly ſet out for madame Leon's, and, notwithſtanding the habitual hardneſs of his heart, he dreaded nothing more than an interview with his injured ſiſter. When he came into her preſence, ſhe reproached him in gentle terms, and a feeble voice, with the miſeries his guilty conduct had brought upon her, and requeſted him, as ſhe was perſuaded ſhe had only a few days to live, to have her conveyed to her father's, that ſhe might breathe her laſt in the boſom of her family. She promiſed the moſt inviolable ſecrecy, and aſſured Leopold, that he had nothing to dread from any apprehenſions of a diſcovery on her part, and that ſhe only indulged a natural wiſh, with which ſhe earneſtly requeſted him to comply. Leopold feigned to agree to his ſiſter's propoſal, though nothing was further from his intentions; and having conſulted madame Leon, it was determined between them, that the unhappy Eleonora ſhould be amuſed with his profeſſions of compliance, under the expectation of her ſpeedy diſſolution, which would extricate them from any further embarraſſment reſpecting her. This plan ſeemed to relieve Leopold from the ſtate of anxiety and apprehenſion under which he laboured; but madame Leon had another deſign in contemplation. She reaſoned like other perfidious perſons of her mercenary diſpoſition, and became ſpeedily convinced that a diſcovery might prove more profitable to her than ſecrecy in a matter that concerned a perſon of ſuch rank and influence as the marquis de Circé. Accordingly, on the following morning ſhe diſpatched a meſſenger with orders to convey the intelligence to the marquis; but Leopold, ſuſpecting her deſigns, contrived to meet the meſſenger on the road, and, by threats, to draw from him the object of his miſſion. Seeing that ſuch a diſcovery would prove his ruin, he inhumanly murdered the unhappy meſſenger, and, by that horrid action, prevented for the preſent the natural conſequences of his enormous crimes. The unhappy Eleonora did not long ſurvive the interview ſhe had with Leopold, and was buried, by the direction of Dolcé, under a feigned name, in the church-yard of the village in which madame Leon reſided.

Though Leopold had hitherto eſcaped detection, the marquis did not fail to view with concern his frequent viſits to the abbé, and to perceive that, under the cloak of outward diſcretion, his ſon was ſecretly indulging himſelf in vitious and criminal exceſſes. A circumſtance took place after his return from the abbé, which revealed to the marquis the iniquity and depravity of his abandoned ſon. A Jew made his appearance at the chateau, and offered a collection of jewels for ſale; and the marquis, prompted by curioſity more than by the deſire of purchaſing, ordered the Jew into his preſence. On his appearance, the marquis immediately recognized the articles, which were the ſame that had been ſtolen from him ſome time before. Upon queſtioning the Jew reſpecting the manner in which he had become poſſeſſed of the jewels, he replied that he had purchaſed them from a young man of faſhion; and, from the deſcription he gave of the perſon, the marquis was convinced that it was no other than his own ſon. Leopold was immediately ſummoned, and confronted with the Jew, who aſſerted that he was the perſon from whom he had purchaſed the articles in queſtion. The charge was denied by Leopold with equal vehemence; but the marquis, recollecting that one of his ſervants had ſeen Leopold in Paris at the time and in the place which the Jew mentioned, had him immediately brought before him. His teſtimony fully confirmed the aſſertions of the Jew, and the marquis, having paid him the money which Leopold had received for the jewels, ordered him to depart immediately. You ſee, ſir (ſaid the

marquis, turning to Leopold), that your guilt is eſtabliſhed beyond doubt. Unhappy father that I am! But what aſtoniſhes me moſt is, that I perceive your preceptor muſt have been the accomplice of your crimes. At theſe words Amelia burſt into tears, and aſſured her father that Dolcé was a villain of the deepeſt dye; that he had provided her with the books that firſt induced her to ſwerve from the path of duty and of virtue, and that he had taken every opportunity of teſtifying his paſſion for her without coming to a formal declaration. The marquis, perceiving his ſuſpicions to be ſtrengthened by the teſtimony of Amelia, ordered a ſervant to go in queſt of Dolcé, and convey him to the chateau without giving him any information of the motives that induced him to have him brought into his preſence. He then reproached Leopold in the bittereſt terms with his infamous conduct, and with being the cauſe of the ruin of a reſpectable old domeſtic, who had been many years in his ſervice. He ſaid that his mother was happy in her fate, to have cloſed her days before ſhe had an opportunity of being acquainted with the villainy of her ſon. It was his fate to have the painful taſk of witneſſing his guilty proceedings, and it would be his duty to puniſh him as he juſtly deſerved. While they were thus engaged, the abbé made his appearance at the chateau, and was uſhered into the apartment in which the marquis and his ſon awaited his arrival. The marquis called up his chaplain and a ſervant into the room before he began the diſcuſſion of the buſineſs, and then had the doors carefully cloſed. The abbé was ſtruck with his ſolemnity, and caſt an expreſſive glance at Leopold, whoſe attention was too ſtrongly engaged to notice the motions of his preceptor. The marquis then aſſured Dolcé that he was fully acquainted with his villainy and the blackneſs of his heart; that he had the cleareſt teſtimonies of his crimes, and that he ſhould be immediately delivered over into the hands of juſtice, and ſuffer the puniſhment juſtly due to his baſe and criminal proceedings. The abbé, perceiving how matters were likely to terminate, reſumed his uſual effrontery, and, thinking his fate inevitable, made a full confeſſion of his crimes and thoſe of his pupil, and of the cauſe which produced ſo dreadful a ſeries of the moſt odious and diſguſting enormities. Atheiſm he acknowledged to be the ſource of all his crimes, and that by inculcating the ſame doctrine on the youthful mind of his pupil, he had prepared him for the commiſſion of every atrocity that diſgraces human nature. He then acquainted the marquis with every criminal proceeding in which he had engaged with Leopold, adding the circumſtance of the murder of the meſſenger that was ſent by the unhappy Eleonora to convey the tidings of her miſery to her father. Thus, ſaid he, I have made a ſincere avowal of my guilt and baſeneſs, but do not imagine you ſhall have the ſatisfaction of my puniſhment; one crime more ſhall crown my atchievements, and amply atone for every former act of wickedneſs. On concluding theſe words, he plunged a dagger into his boſom, and dropt lifeleſs at the feet of the marquis de Circé. The violence of his action aſtoniſhed every one preſent; the marquis was ſtruck dumb with amazement, and looked around him without uttering a word. At length, he addreſſed himſelf to the chaplain:—What ought I to do, ſaid he, with the deteſtable monſter that owes his exiſtence to me? Alas! I have cheriſhed a ſerpent in my boſom, that has imbittered the cloſe of my unhappy days. What puniſhment can be too ſevere for him? Unhappy Eleonora! thy murderer muſt atone for thy unmerited fate. Your wiſdom will determine, replied the venerable eccleſiaſtic, what conduct you ought to adopt with regard to this unhappy youth; but before you give way to your juſt reſentment, the

formalities of juſtice muſt be gone through. The body of the impious Delé muſt be removed from hence, and diſpoſed of according to the forms of the law; and as for the reſt, if I may be permitted to give my advice, I would recommend to you to bury in oblivion the memory of this dreadful hiſtory. It is a cruel circumſtance, that the continual recollection of your troubles ſhould deſtroy the comfort of your declining days, which you deſerved to paſs with eaſe and happineſs in the boſom of your family. The marquis ſeemed to approve of the counſel of the worthy eccleſiaſtic, but having ſome apprehenſions of Leopold's conduct, he gave him ſtrict orders not to ſtir from the chateau. That guilty and unfortunate youth, being ſtruck by the wretched end of his preceptor, began to open his eyes with reſpect to the enormity of his crimes, and to feel a degree of remorſe and repentance which he was an utter ſtranger to before that time. The violent ſtruggles of conſcientious guilt had ſuch an effect on his ſpirits that he was taken dangerouſly ill. The natural tenderneſs of his father was awakened on this occaſion, and Leopold, who ſo little merited ſuch kind treatment at his hands, experienced the utmoſt aſſiduity and attention during his illneſs. The marquis was conſtantly at his bedſide, and with his own hands preſented the medicines that were deemed proper for his ſon in every ſtage of his illneſs. Amelia was equally attentive with her father, and the moſt dutiful and affectionate ſon never received greater proofs of tenderneſs and attachment than the guilty Leopold, who was the cauſe of all the misfortunes of his family. After a painful courſe of ſickneſs, which was attended with a continual delirium, Leopold was declared to be out of danger, and the marquis manifeſted the utmoſt joy and ſatisfaction on the occaſion. He made preſents to the ſervants, gave a fête to the inhabitants of the village, and aſſured Leopold that his crimes were forgotten, and that he was fully reinſtated in his affections. The recollection of his atrocious conduct, notwithſtanding the indulgence of his father, made deep impreſſion on the mind of Leopold, and he ſeriouſly thought of burying himſelf in a monaſtery, in order to dedicate the remainder of his life to prayer and penitence. He conſulted his father's chaplain on this occaſion; but the worthy eccleſiaſtic was of a different opinion, and adviſed him to paſs his time with his father, and endeavour by his aſſiduity and good conduct to atone for his former errors, and adminiſter comfort to him in his declining days. Leopold promiſed to comply, and by his ſubſequent good behaviour gave the marquis no reaſon to ſuſpect the ſincerity of his repentance.

METHOD OF PREVENTING IRON AND STEEL FROM RUSTING.

C. CONTE' has found out a method of preventing the oxidation of iron and ſteel, or, to ſpeak in language more generally underſtood, to prevent iron and ſteel from ruſting. This method conſiſts in mixing with fat oil varniſh a half, at leaſt, or rather four-fifths, of well rectified ſpirit of turpentine. This varniſh is applied ſlightly, and in an equal manner, by means of a ſponge; after which the article is ſuffered to dry in a place ſheltered from duſt. Articles varniſhed in this manner, it is ſaid, will retain their metallic brilliancy, and never contract any ſpots of ruſt. This varniſh may be applied alſo to copper, of which it preſerves the poliſh, and brightens the colour. It may be employed in particular, with advantage, for preſerving from alteration philoſophical inſtruments, which, in the courſe of experiments, are brought into contact with water, and by thoſe means are liable to loſe their ſplendour, and to become tarniſhed.

HINTS *as to the* ADVANTAGES *of* OLD PASTURES, *and on the* CONVERSION *of* GRASS LAND *into* TILLAGE.

[From Eſſays on Miſcellaneous Subjects, by Sir John Sinclair, Bart.]

HAVING correſponded with ſome intelligent proprietors, and practical farmers, on the important queſtion recommended by the Board of Agriculture to the attention of the public, namely, 'The Propriety of converting Paſture Land into Tillage,' I have thought it a duty incumbent upon me, as a member of the board, and a well-wiſher to the improvement of the country, to communicate the reſult of that correſpondence, as ſeveral of the obſervations tranſmitted to me on that ſubject ſeemed to be of conſiderable importance.

Advantages of old Paſtures.

Before, however, the propriety of ploughing up old paſtures is diſcuſſed, it may be proper, in the firſt place, to point out ſome of the moſt important advantages to be derived from them.

1. The firſt advantage contended for is, that old paſtures anſwer better for making butter and cheeſe than artificial graſſes, and the idea is probably well founded. All ſeeds, particularly clovers, give the milk a ſtrong taſte, and although the quantity may be as great, or even greater, yet the quality is always worſe; it will caſt up leſs cream in proportion, the butter is leſs firm and waxy, and it will not keep ſo well. The cheeſe alſo is conſiderably inferior.

2. It is next aſſerted, that old paſtures are better calculated for feeding cattle and ſheep; but this can only be admitted with certain qualifications. In the opinion of that reſpectable farmer, Mr. Culley (who has had fifty years experience in the grazing line) 'artificial graſſes, ſuited to the different ſoils, will be found to anſwer better than old graſs, for feeding cattle, ewes, and lambs, during the beginning, and for the greater part of the ſummer; and even during the autumn, artificial graſſes will feed ewes and lambs better than old graſs; whereas, on the other hand, fogs (or aftermaths, as they are called in the ſouthern parts of England) from old graſs, will certainly feed cattle better in the autumn, the richneſs, luxuriance, and ſtrength of ſuch herbage, being better calculated for their conſtitutions.' It is believed, indeed, that it is hardly poſſible to fatten a large ox, to any degree of perfection, on herbage alone, without ſuch paſtures.

3. It is further contended, that the hay made from old graſs, though not ſo bulky, yet is of a better quality, and will keep longer in a good condition than hay made from artificial graſſes, particularly from a mixture of clover and rye-graſs.

Deſcription of the Lands that ought to be kept perpetually in Graſs.

As old paſtures are attended with ſuch peculiar advantages, it is deſirable to know, what deſcription of land ought to be kept perpetually in graſs. It is certain that there are many old grazing paſtures, which can afford to pay a conſiderable permanent rent in graſs, even at a diſtance from any populous town, the value of which might be reduced if ſubjected to the plough. It is the opinion of Mr. Culley, that ſoft heavy loams, with a clayey or marly bottom or ſubſtratum, are univerſally injured by ploughing. Water-meadows alſo ſhould never be ploughed, as they furniſh ſo large and valuable a produce in ſpring, in ſummer, and in autumn, without any other help than water, while the manure made from that produce goes to enrich the reſt of the farm.

With theſe exceptions, and that of land apt to be overflowed, there is

every reaſon to believe, that old paſtures may occaſionally be converted, with public advantage and private benefit, into arable land.

Obſtacles to the Converſion of old Paſtures into Tillage.

Before, however, the converſion of old paſtures into tillage is recommended, it is right to conſider, what are the obſtacles which may ſtand in the way of ſuch converſion; for, unleſs they are removed, any recommendation to that effect would be uſeleſs. Theſe obſtacles are, 1, Tithes; and, 2, The reſtrictions of the landlord.

In regard to tithes, while they continue undefined, they operate, in a peculiar manner, againſt the converſion of old graſs lands into tillage, by depriving both the landlord and tenant of ſo large a proportion of the profit to be derived from it; and as there is every reaſon to believe, that a very conſiderable extent of land in England is kept perpetually in graſs, in order to avoid the payment of tithes in kind, is it not a moſt unfortunate circumſtance, that ſome means are not thought of for commuting, on equitable terms, a right that operates injuriouſly to the agricultural intereſts of the country?

As to the reſtrictions of the landlord, they are often neceſſary for the protection of his property. But, in the courſe of the inquiry, it will probably be in the power of the board to point out the conditions under which old paſtures may be ploughed up, not only without detriment, but with advantage to the landlord, and to the public.

Preparation of the Soil.

The preparation for the tillage crops may be conſidered under three heads: 1, Draining; 2, Paring and burning; and, 3, Manuring.

In regard to *draining*, it ſhould be done effectually before the land is attempted to be ploughed; for very poſſibly it may have been kept in paſture on account of its wetneſs.

As to *paring and burning*, it is certainly a uſeful practice where old graſs lands are broken up, for it deſtroys numberleſs eggs and larvæ of inſects, which are extremely injurious to the ſucceeding crops, and it almoſt inſures the tenant from any damage he is otherwiſe likely to ſuſtain from wireworms, grubs, &c. Indeed where the land is rough, with furze buſhes, brambles, ant hills, ſtrong heath, &c. it is hardly to be diſpenſed with. If the land is ſo ſmooth and friable that paring and burning is not neceſſary, the beſt plan to adopt is, *to double plough it*, by means of two ploughs following each other, the firſt plough taking off a thin ſurface of about three inches, and the ſecond going deeper in the ſame place; both furrows not to exceed ſix inches. Mr. Ducket's ſkim coulter does the work at one operation. This plan is certainly the beſt to purſue where paring and burning, from prejudice or any other circumſtance, will not be permitted.

As to *manuring*, if the land is not to be pared and burnt, lime might be ſpread on the ſurface, ſome time before ploughing, in order to deſtroy grubs and inſects; but old paſture lands are in general rich enough to be abundantly productive, without dung, until they are about to be laid down into permanent paſture.

Courſe of Crops.

The rotation of crops muſt depend upon the nature of the ſoil, and the manner in which it is prepared for cultivation.

If the land is pared and burnt early in the ſeaſon, turnips is the beſt article that can be ſown; and it is found by experience, that turnips thus raiſed will go further in feeding cattle or ſheep than any other. If it is late in the ſeaſon before the land is burnt, cole or cabbage may be adopted: if the land is broken up without being pared or burned, early oats will be found the moſt profitable crop, being ſo extremely productive on all freſh clean ground. Mr. Culley ſtates,

that there are various ſorts of early oats, ſuited for the different ſoils: for inſtance, on rich leys of ſtrong loam, Poliſh oats ought to be preferred, of which that ſort called Church's oats, is by far the beſt variety. On lighter ſoils, the Dutch, or Friezeland oat has been found to anſwer beſt: but, on the whole, on loamy ſoils, no ſpecies has been found comparable to the potatoe oat, ſo called from its having been accidentally found in a field of potatoes, in one of the northern counties. In regard to the ſucceeding courſe, on dry ſoils, turnips, potatoes, and clover, ought to be the prevailing green crops; on mixed ſoils, beans may be added; and when the mixture inclines to heavineſs, cabbages. The following rotation is particularly recommended, on a lightiſh ſoil, by ſir Alexander Ramſay; namely, 1, Oats; 2, Turnips, with dung and lime; 3, Barley, with ſeeds; 4, Clover; 5, Wheat; 6, Turnips; 7, Barley and graſs ſeeds; and then to remain in paſture. This intelligent and reſpectable farmer is decidedly of opinion, that a complete rotation of ſeven years is to be preferred to any ſhorter term. The farmer is thus enabled to profit by his labour, and thoroughly to pulverize and reduce the ſoil. It may then be laid down in a huſbandman-like manner, enriched, and not exhauſted, and likely to produce both hay and paſture in abundance and perfection.

Management during the Rotation.

When land of a light quality is laid down with turnips, ſheep ſhould be folded on them. If the land is ſtrong, or wet, the green crops grown thereon ought to be drawn, and fed in ſome adjoining graſs field, or in ſheds. If the land is in very high health and condition, ſome farmers would be inclined to cart off half the turnips, and to eat the reſt on the ground, though this is not a plan to be univerſally recommended.

In regard to manuring, it may be proper to obſerve, that the dung and lime ought to be applied to the turnips, or other green crop, but never to the different ſorts of grain.

Mode of laying down to Graſs.

Graſs ſeeds in general ſhould be ſown with the barley, or the crop ſucceeding turnips, or any other green crop that may be preferred: *the quantity* of graſs ſeeds muſt be governed by the ſtate and quality of the ſoil. Old tillage land requires, in addition to the clover, three pecks, or one buſhel of rye-graſs ſeed *per* acre; whereas new-ploughed lands may do with half that quantity, or even leſs. Heavy lands, if they are to be broken up again in one or two years, require from 10 lbs. to even 20 lbs. of red clover, beſide a buſhel of the beſt or Pacey rye-graſs; for the ſeeds are very apt to miſs on ſuch ſoils, except in very favourable growing ſeaſons: but if ſuch lands are to remain in graſs, from 4 lbs. to 6 lbs. of marle-graſs or perennial red clover, and 4 lbs. to 5 lbs. of white, with as much yellow or hop clover, and a buſhel of the beſt rye-graſs, will be neceſſary. If any doubt is entertained regarding the marle-graſs, from 4 lbs. or 5 lbs. of common red clover may be uſed in its ſtead. All dry ſoils may have from 2 lbs. to 4 lbs. of hop or yellow clover ſeed *per* acre, in addition to the white clover ſeed, and the perennial red clover, or marle-graſs already mentioned. The following plan is recommended by Mr. Bridge (a reſpectable farmer in Dorſetſhire) for laying down land for permanent paſture; namely, to ſow from 6 lbs. to 7 lbs. of white clover; ditto, either of marle-graſs or of common red clover; ditto, of hop clover; and one buſhel of the beſt Devonſhire rye-graſs, which reſembles much the Pacey rye-graſs. By this means, there is a perpetual feed for five or ſix years. The hop, clover, and rye-graſs flouriſh early in the ſpring; the marle-graſs is in perfection in July, when the other goes off; and the white clover is in perfection in Auguſt, and con-

tinues during the remainder of the ſeaſon. In ſome meadows of very rich ſoil, perhaps lucerne ought to be preferred, and it would be of infinite importance to have it aſcertained, to what extent that culture could be carried.

As to providing the ſeed, much muſt depend upon the character of the tenant, who may often be intruſted with that charge; but if he is too fond of the plough, it is the ſafeſt plan for the landlord to provide the ſeeds, as it muſt be for his intereſt to procure the beſt that can be purchaſed, to prevent any neceſſity from the unproductive ſtate of the graſs, to have again recourſe to tillage.

Increaſe of Rent.

It is evident that any tenant would be willing and able to give an increaſe of rent for the liberty of ploughing up old paſtures. What the addition ought to be, muſt be governed by the ſituation, the quality of the land, the price of grain, and other circumſtances. In Scotland, double rent and upward is not unuſual on a leaſe of four years. The earl of Roſebery lately let about 300 Scotch acres of old paſture at that rate, ſome part of which produce 8l. per annum*. It had been paſtured, however, for more than ſixteen years, and was ſituate within eight miles of Edinburgh. The high rent, payable for ſuch lands in Scotland, may be attributed to the following circumſtances:

1. That land fit for tillage is leſs abundant in the northern part of the iſland than in England. 2. That old paſtures are peculiarly well calculated for producing oats, the general food of the people †. 3. That ſuch lands are in general ſo rich as to require but little manure, conſequently the manure ariſing from the crops they produce may, in a great meaſure, be devoted to the improvement of the reſt of the farm. 4. That the tenants in Scotland are not ſubjected to the payment of tithes, nor of poor-rates, or other taxes. And, laſtly, that there is either a greater ſpirit of ſpeculation among the Scotch farmers, or that they are contented with leſs profit than the Engliſh.

Condition under which the Liberty of Ploughing may be granted.

But the increaſe of rent is not the only particular that a landlord has to take under his conſideration when he grants the liberty of ploughing up old paſtures. Unleſs care is taken, when they are broken up, that it is done under a proper ſyſtem of management, the execution of which is enforced by the ſtricteſt regulations, the real value of the property may be materially injured. The conditions, therefore, that ought to be ſtipulated by the landlord, is certainly not the leaſt important branch of this inquiry.

In conſidering the general nature of the conditions that ought to be required, I have derived much benefit from peruſing the articles which were obligingly communicated to me, by the earl of Roſebery, and, according to which, that noble lord, in January 1801, let a conſiderable tract of old paſture land, part of the eſtate of Dalmeny, in the neighbourhood of Edinburgh.

Art. 1. By this article the fields were to be ſet up to auction, and the higheſt bidder was to find ſecurity to fulfil the terms he had agreed to.

Art. 2. The grounds were let for four years. Firſt crop, *oats*; ſecond crop, *turnips or other green crop*; if a naked fallow, four ploughings; third crop, *barley and graſs ſeeds*, with two or three ploughings; and, fourth crop, *hay*; prohibiting wheat, hemp, flax, &c. under the penalty of 10l per acre of additional rent.

Art. 3. The tenant to plough the land properly, to hoe and weed it, &c.

* Equal to 6l 8s per Engliſh acre. In many inſtances old paſture land would fetch in Scotland from 8l to even 10l *per* Engliſh acre.

† It appears from the corn tables, that wheat is almoſt always cheaper in Scotland than in England, and oats the reverſe.

to ſow with the third crop at leaſt one buſhel and a quarter, or one Scotch firlot, of rye-graſs, 12 lbs. or 14 lbs. good red clover ſeed, and 4 lbs. white clover, and ſufficiently to harrow, ſtone, and roll the ſame, entirely at his own expenſe.

Art. 4. The tenant to have liberty to cut and carry away the foggage, or ſecond crop of graſs, in the fourth, or laſt year, but not to paſture the ſame *, and to remove every article belonging to him on or before the 1ſt of November 1804.

Ar. 5. The tenant to preſerve the gates and fences, to keep the ditches, &c. clear and open, and to leave them in good condition at his removal, and, if neglected, the ſame to be done by the landlord, at the tenant's expenſe.

Art. 6. The tenant who ſhall be preferred, to ſign a proper deed or inſtrument, with a ſufficient ſurety, ſpecifying the terms agreed upon.

Art. 7. Accommodation given to the tenant to ſtack and threſh the crop, under certain obligations, that he ſhall keep the barn and corn-yard in repair.

Art. 8. An arbiter appointed to determine all differences: the expenſe attending any diſpute to be paid by the perſon againſt whom judgment ſhall be given.

Art. 9. Tenants to remove, without the neceſſity of previous notice, under certain penalties.

Art. 10. Power reſerved to the landlord, or to perſons he may appoint, to inſpect the fields from time to time, alſo to work coal and limeſtone, and other ſtones or gravel, to ſink or dig pits, to make roads, and to do every thing neceſſary for carrying on ſuch works (allowing to the tenant the yearly value of the ground thus taken up, or rendered uſeleſs) alſo reſerving the power of carrying off wood and underwood, paying the damages ariſing therefrom.

It is evident, that, under ſuch prudent conditions as theſe, if properly enforced, the moſt cautious landlord may ſuffer old paſture lands to be converted into tillage, without any material riſk of his property being thereby injured.

On the Propriety of laying down ſome of the Tillage Land into Graſs.

Wherever circumſtances will admit of it, the landlord will find it for his intereſt to lay down the ſame quantity of old arable land into paſture that is broken up from paſture and rendered arable, by which change the farm will, on the whole, be much improved, and conſequently it is for the advantage of the landlord to conſent to the alteration. It is, at the ſame time, in the opinion of one of our moſt intelligent farmers, (ſir Alexander Ramſay) one of the moſt difficult operations in huſbandry, to lay down old tillage land that has been for years under a ploughing ſyſtem (as under fallow, wheat, beans, &c.) into permanent graſs. One rotation will not be ſufficient to produce good paſture; it may be found neceſſary to have two complete rounds of management, different from what the land has been accuſtomed to; as, 1, Turnips, cabbages, or ſummer fallow. 2. Barley, with 12 lbs. of clover and ½ buſhel of rye-graſs to each acre. 3 and 4. Clover, to ſtand two years. 5. The clover to be broke up for drilled beans or peas, according as the land is heavy or light. 6. Turnips, with manure. And, 7, barley, with ſuch graſs ſeeds as are fit for permanent paſture. When the field has gone through theſe rotations, and in the courſe of them has been twice manured, it can hardly fail to produce good paſture, more eſpecially if care be taken the firſt year to feed it off with ſheep.

On the greater Productiveneſs of Arable compared to Paſture Lands.

Having thus ſhortly ſtated the man-

* This reſtriction was intended for the preſervation of young fences; but, where the fields are completely fencible, lord Roſebery prefers obliging the tenant to paſture the ſecond crop of clover.

ner in which old paſture lands may be converted into tillage, it may be proper briefly to explain how much the public is intereſted in ſuch a converſion, in conſequence of the much greater quantity of food for man, that is produced by land in tillage. According to archdeacon Heſlop's comparative ſtatement lately publiſhed, the weight of food from an acre of arable, on the average of three years, a fallow year being included, is nine and a half times greater than from an acre of feeding ſtock; and, according to the calculations of a very intelligent correſpondent of the board, the Rev. Dr. Walker, of Collington, a Scotch acre of land in paſture, fed with ſheep, produces only 120 lbs. weight of meat; whereas the ſame land will yield 1,280 lbs. weight of oatmeal, or above ten times as much in weight *. This is ſo important a circumſtance, in a public point of view, that it merits particular attention, as it tends to prove, that where one million of people may be maintained by paſturage, ſeveral millions may be maintained by tillage, and without any additional extent of ground for working horſes, cattle, &c. if the land be cultivated by the ſpade.

Concluſion.

On the whole, though it may not be adviſable to recommend the ploughing up of very rich old paſtures, or water meadows, or land apt to be overflowed, yet, with theſe exceptions, there is every reaſon to believe, that other ſorts of graſs lands may be rendered much more productive, by being occaſionally converted into tillage; and for that purpoſe it is deſirable, that the converſion of ſuch lands ſhould be promoted as much as poſſible; by removing the obſtacles to ſuch converſion;—by enforcing the neceſſity of commuting tithes, without which no conſiderable tract of old paſture can be broken up;—by pointing out to landlords the conditions under which they may agree to ſuch a plan, not only without detriment to the real value of their property, but alſo yielding a moſt important addition to their income;—and, above all, by explaining to parliament, and to the public, that the meaſure above recommended is one which may effectually tend to prevent future ſcarcities; and to render this country independent of foreign nations, in the important article of proviſions.

* If cultivated in whole, or in part, with potatoes, the difference would be ſtill greater. At the ſame time it is to be obſerved, that grain will not go ſo far as meat in the maintenance of man. The proportional difference between the two has not yet been aſcertained.

ACCOUNT OF THE INHABITANTS OF CEYLON.

Continued from Page 190.

THE dreſs of the poorer ſorts of the Cingleſe in a particular manner beſpeaks their indolence and wretchedneſs. It conſiſts merely of a piece of coarſe cloth wrapped round their loins, and covering their thighs, or frequently only the parts which decency requires to be concealed. Their hair is either tied up in a bunch on the crown of the head, or cropped quite cloſe, which is the uſual cuſtom among the lower orders of the peaſants. The women wear their hair tied up in the ſame way, or faſtened with tortoiſeſhell combs. Their dreſs conſiſts of a piece of cloth wrapped round the waiſt, and reaching down to their ancles; among the very pooreſt claſs it does not reach below the knee. They wear alſo a ſhort jacket which uſually covers the boſom and ſhoulders, leaving the middle of the back bare; the boſom is alſo frequently expoſed. This claſs of women are employed to do all manner of ſervile work, and to bring the fruits and vegetables to market.

But although the poorer Cingleſe uſe no more clothing than a very ſmall attention to decency obliges them, the ſuperior ranks are far from being regardleſs of dreſs. The men of the

better ſort uſually wear a piece of calico wrapped round their waiſts, and either allowed to hang looſe down to their ancles, or drawn together between the legs in the form of wide trowſers. The body is covered by a jacket with ſleeves, which unites the appearance of a ſhirt and waiſtcoat, and is buttoned at the neck and wriſts. The buttons are the articles on which the magnificence of this piece of dreſs is ſuppoſed particularly to depend, and no expence is ſpared to have them as ſplendid as poſſible. A great number of buttons are uſed, and they are either of ſilver, gold, or precious ſtones. Enormous earrings are another piece of finery in which the Ceyloneſe cope with their neighbours the Malabars. In order to prepare the ear for theſe unwieldy rings, which often hang down to the ſhoulders, pieces of wood are employed to keep open and widen the orifice which is made for the purpoſe in their infancy. As the climate hardly requires any covering, the ſhoulders and body are often left completely bare. On their heads they wear caps of various ſhapes, and others of them coloured handkerchiefs, according as fancy diſtates, or the rules of their caſt preſcribe. The dreſs of the higher ranks of women is ſimilar to that worn by the black Portugueſe ladies. The young Cingleſe women of rank dreſs by no means inelegantly, and neither their appearance nor manner are diſagreeable. They are frequently met at the parties of the Dutch, who are much more partial to their company than the Engliſh.

The Cingleſe are ingenious and expert artificers, and diſplay particular dexterity in gold, ſilver, and carpenters' work. In this laſt branch, they have already made great proficiency ſince the arrival of the Engliſh. Their implements are very few, and ſimple in the conſtruction; the mode of uſing them is readily acquired, and the toes are occaſionally employed as well as the fingers. They have none of that ponderous machinery which is employed to facilitate the vaſt manufactures of the Europeans; their implements are eaſily tranſported, and as eaſily ſet to work. When a ſmith is called for, he carries along with him his bellows, anvil, hammer, files, and all his other apparatus, and ſets himſelf to work on the ſpot in a few minutes. The number of perſons who are employed in all ſorts of handicraft work, renders furniture, and other articles of that deſcription, both good and cheap.

The Cingleſe ſupply our garriſons plentifully with beef, fowls, eggs, and other articles of the ſame ſort, at a very moderate rate, as they ſeldom make uſe of them for their own conſumption: beef in particular they never taſte, as the cow is an object of their worſhip. A few of them, particularly thoſe moſt converſant with Europeans, venture to drink arrack; and all ranks uſe toddy, as well for medicine as for the ſake of the liquor itſelf. The veſſels which they employ to hold the juice of the palmyra and cocoa-tree, is a rind of the betel-tree, which forms a coating over the leaves; in colour and texture it reſembles bleached ſheep-ſkin, and is fully as ſtrong, and much better adapted for retaining liquor.

As the Cingleſe live under the protection of the Britiſh government, they are alſo ſubjected to our laws and forms of adminiſtering juſtice, except in a very few points, in which their ancient cuſtoms, as they do not materially interfere with our modes, are permitted to be retained. The ſame laws of inheritance remain in force among all the Ceyloneſe: the lands deſcend to the eldeſt ſon, if the father makes no will; but a certain proportion of the property muſt always go to the maintenance of the widow and the younger children.

The Cingleſe under our dominion are governed by their native magiſtrates, only the ſupreme controlling power always reſides in the ſervants of our government. All our poſſeſſions on the iſland are divided into

corles and diſtricts, the ſubordinate ſuperintendence of which is given to the Moodeliers, or native magiſtrates, who are always choſen from among the claſs of the nobles ſtyled Hondrews and Mahondrews. Theſe magiſtrates ſuperintend both the country parts and the villages, and exerciſe a power ſimilar to our country and city magiſtrates in Great Britain. It is the buſineſs of the Moodeliers to aſſiſt in collecting the revenues, ſettling the proportion of the taxes and contributions, aſſembling the peaſants for government ſervice, procuring proviſions and other ſupplies to the different garriſons when required, providing coolies for conveying ſtores or baggage from one ſtation to another; in ſhort, it is their buſineſs to obſerve the conduct of the natives, and prevent either public or individual intereſt from ſuſtaining any loſs.

The Moodeliers have under them an inferior claſs of petty officers, who are alſo choſen from among the Hondrews. Their buſineſs is to aſſiſt the Moodeliers, and carry their orders into execution. In thoſe parts where it is not thought requiſite to quarter a body of troops, there is a police corps of the natives appointed to enforce the commands of government in each diſtrict: they are compoſed of Conganies, or ſergeants, Aratjies, or corporals, and Laſcarines, or common ſoldiers, and perform the ſame offices as our ſheriff's men, or conſtables. They are armed with ſhort ſwords and ſpears: a large body of them attend the governor in his tours, and on other occaſions, either for ſtate or expediency.

The Moodeliers as well as the inferior claſs of police officers, are under the immediate orders of the commanding officer of the military poſt to which their diſtrict or corle is attached, with the exception of a few corles on the borders of the Candian territory, where it has not been found expedient to hold any military ſtation. It is through theſe commanding officers that all reports, intelligence and complaints are carried to the governor. The Moodeliers at the ſame time make a report of what paſſes in their reſpective diſtricts to the Maha or Ma Ma Moodelier, the chief of the whole order, who reſides in the Black Town of Columbo; and he on his part lays theſe reports before the governor. There are particular Moodeliers appointed to ſuperintend the barking of the cinnamon, who interfere in nothing elſe, and are reſponſible to the European officer who is inſtructed with the management of that department.

The Mahondrews, or nobles, from among whom the Moodeliers are choſen, form a particular caſt completely diſtinct from the others, and both their appearance, dreſs, and manners denote ſuperiority to the reſt of the natives.

The Mahondrews are fairer than the other Cingleſe, probably owing to their being leſs expoſed to the ſun. When they go abroad, their rank and wealth entitles them to be carried in coolies or palankeens; or if they prefer going on foot, their attendants hold the leaf of the talipot over their heads. When they appear in public, or wait on Europeans, a numerous body either of their own ſervants or of the peaſants of their diſtrict are employed to carry their umbrellas and betel boxes. The latter are made very handſome as if to denote the quality of the owner; they are uſually of ivory, tortoiſeſhell, ſilver, or calamander wood inlayed. In their own hands they carry a ſmall ſilver box, reſembling a watch, to hold their chinam.

The Mahondrews diſcover on all occaſions a great deſire to copy the manners of the Europeans, and in their addreſs and converſation this predilection is particularly diſcernible. Moſt of them ſpeak the Dutch and Portugueſe languages fluently, and many of them already begin to converſe in Engliſh with conſiderable facility. They dreſs very richly, and by no means inelegantly according to the faſhions of that country.

Having now given a deſcription of the Ceyloneſe in general, and pointed out the particular characteriſtics of the Cingleſe, a few peculiar circumſtances are all that require to be noticed of the manners of the Candians. The exceſſive jealouſy which the latter entertain of Europeans and their connexions, has indeed hitherto rendered every attempt to obtain accurate information concerning them almoſt completely abortive. It might be naturally imagined that this information could have been obtained by means of the Cingleſe in the European dominions; but the intercourſe between the two branches of the nation is more completely cut off than that between any of the moſt ſavage and hoſtile tribes in North America. Even during the intervals of peace no communication is opened, nor is there any attempt on either ſide to carry on a ſecret traffic or correſpondence with the other.

The ſtate of conſtant hoſtility in which the Candians have ſo long continued with the Europeans, and the independence which their mountains enable them to maintain, have rendered the lines of their character more bold and prominent, while the ſubjection and tranquillity of the Lowlanders have greatly ſoftened the more rugged traits of their natural diſpoſition. Although the Candians are governed with the moſt complete deſpotiſm, yet as their prejudices and cuſtoms are ſhared and reſpected by their monarchs, they are proud of being free from a foreign yoke, and ſlaves only to a maſter of their own race. They look upon the Cingleſe in our ſervice as a mean, deſpicable race, who barter their natural rights for peace and protection. The Candians in their appearance retain an air of haughtineſs and gravity; they are at the ſame time more courteous and polite, as well as more crafty and treacherous than their countrymen of the Lowlands. They are alſo accounted more athletic, and ſuperior both in ſhape and countenance. As they are accuſtomed from their infancy to bear arms and watch at the different poſts where any danger is apprehended, they early acquire a military air which is of itſelf ſufficient to diſtinguiſh them from the Cingleſe. Their houſes are alſo neater and better conſtructed, though of the ſame materials and furniſhed quite alike.

The dreſs of the higher orders of the Candians conſiſts of ſeveral folds of cotton cloth, or calico drawn cloſe round their waiſts; while another piece of the ſame, after being wrapped round the body, has the one end tucked up at the back, while the other is drawn together between the legs, or hangs ſtraight down to the ancles. Their arms, ſhoulders, and cheſt, are bare. On their heads they wear a ſort of cap, or turban, of a ſhape peculiar to themſelves: it has no reſemblance to that worn by the natives of the continent or the Cingleſe; it is broad and flat at top and narrow toward the lower part, and is ſtiffened with *conjee*, a ſpecies of ſtarch made of rice. Over their ſhoulders, or round their waiſts, they wear a belt, to which a dagger or ſhort hanger is ſuſpended. A purſe, like that in the dreſs of the Scots Highlanders, is worn before them, and is employed to hold betel-leaf, areka-nuts, and tobacco. They have, however, commonly a boy to attend them with a box of ivory or tortoiſeſhell repleniſhed with theſe materials. An umbrella of the talipot leaf is their conſtant and neceſſary attendant when they walk abroad in the day time. They all wear rings on their fingers; few of them in their ears, as this is one of thoſe indifferent articles in which the king ſhows his ſupreme authority by entering his royal prohibition. The chief diſtinction in the dreſs of the higher orders among the Candians and the Cingleſe, is in the form of the cap, and the immenſe quantity of cloth worn round the waiſt by the former.

The appearance of the lower orders among both is in every reſpect the ſame, only that the difference in the

ſhape of the cap is ſtill obſervable. Of the Candian men and women in general it may be ſaid that they are better dreſt than the Cingleſe, as well as fairer in the complexion.

The Candians are divided into different caſts, which take precedence of each other according to the moſt ſcrupulous regulations. The firſt claſs comprifes the nobles: theſe account it their chief glory to keep their high blood uncontaminated, and for this reaſon never intermarry with thoſe of an inferior rank. If a woman of this caſt were found to have degraded herſelf by connexion of any kind with a man of a lower caſt, her life would be the forfeit. By this regulation they boaſt that their blood is preſerved pure to the lateſt poſterity. This caſt, as among the Cingleſe, is known by the name of Hondrews; and the dreſs among both is the ſame.

The next rank to the nobles includes artiſts, ſuch as painters, and what is accounted the better ſort of artificers, ſuch as ſmiths, carpenters, and goldſmiths. The dreſs of this caſt is nearly the ſame with that of the Hondrews; but they are not permitted to eat with the nobles, or at all to mix in their ſociety.

Thoſe who are employed in what are eſteemed the lower occupations of barbers, potters, waſhers, weavers, &c. form a third caſt, with which the common ſoldiers rank.

The fourth caſt includes the peaſantry, and labourers of all deſcriptions, who either cultivate the lands for themſelves, or are hired out to work for others. The preference given to artificers above both the huſbandmen and the ſoldiers, is a very uncommon fact in the arrangement of the caſts, and peculiar to Ceylon.

All theſe four caſts, according to the Indian cuſtoms, continue unmingled: the ſon purſues the profeſſion of his father from generation to generation, and love as well as ambition is confined to the caſt in which a man happens to be born. But beſide theſe caſts, there is here, as in other parts of India, a wretched race of outcaſts, the martyrs from age to age of this barbarous and unnatural inſtitution. Thoſe who by any crime, or neglect of ſuperſtitious rites, have, according to the decree of the prieſts, forfeited their caſt, are not only condemned to infamy themſelves, but their children and children's children to all generations are ſuppoſed to ſhare in the guilt and contamination. No one of another caſt will intermarry with them; they are allowed to exerciſe no trade or profeſſion, nor to approach any of the human race but the partners of their miſery; nay if they even by accident touch any thing, it is reckoned polluted and accurſed. As they are not allowed to work, they are obliged to beg continually for ſuſtenance, and thus from generation to generation become a dead weight on ſociety. As theſe wretched people are by the iron ſceptre of ſuperſtition already degraded to a ſtate which cannot be exceeded in vileneſs and infamy, and cannot by any good conduct ever retrieve their condition; ſo they have no reſtraint to prevent them from being guilty of the moſt deteſtable crimes. It would certainly be an object worthy the attention of any government to attempt converting this loſt body of men to ſome uſeful purpoſe; and it is plain that the diſpelling their ſuperſtitious notions by the introduction of another ſyſtem of religion, muſt be the firſt ſtep toward effecting this ſalutary improvement.

Theſe people of no caſt are obliged to pay the loweſt of the other Candians as much reſpect and reverence as eaſtern ſervility ordains the latter to pay to the king. As tradition among barbarous nations never wants a legend to account for the origin of every inſtitution, the cruelty exerciſed toward the outcaſts is juſtified by the recital of a crime ſaid to have been anciently committed by them. It is told that this race of people once formed a particular caſt, who were employed as the king's hunters; that

upon ſome provocation they ſupplied his table with human fleſh in place of veniſon; and that upon the diſcovery of this atrocious act, the king doomed them to be outcaſts from ſociety for ever. This ridiculous fable, is mentioned merely to ſhow the extent to which the natives of the iſland imagine the king entitled to carry his authority.

The nature of the government and the military and civil eſtabliſhments of the Candians has been already noticed, in the deſcription of the king of Candy's dominions *.

[To be concluded in our next.]

* See vol. 112, page 332.

STATEMENT *of the* IMPROVEMENT *and* PROGRESS *of the* BREED *of* FINE-WOOLLED SHEEP *in* New South Wales; *preſented by Captain* M'Arthur, *at Lord* Hobart's *Office.*

The ſamples of wool brought from New South Wales having excited the particular attention of the merchants and principal Engliſh manufacturers, captain M'Arthur conſiders it his duty reſpectfully to repreſent to his majeſty's miniſters, that he has found, from an experience of many years, the climate of New South Wales is peculiarly adapted to the increaſe of fine woolled ſheep; and that, from the unlimitted extent of luxuriant paſtures with which that country abounds, millions of thoſe valuable animals may be raiſed in a few years, with but little other expence than the hire of a few ſhepherds.

The ſpecimens of wool that captain M'Arthur has with him, have been inſpected by the beſt judges of wool in this kingdom; and they are of opinion that it poſſeſſes a ſoftneſs ſuperior to many of the wools of Spain, and that it certainly is equal in every valuable property to the very beſt that is to be obtained from thence.

The ſheep producing this fine wool are of the Spaniſh kind, ſent originally from Holland to the Cape of Good Hope, and taken from thence to Port Jackſon.

Captain M'Arthur, being perſuaded that the propagation of thoſe animals would be of the utmoſt conſequence to this country, procured, in 1797, three rams and five ewes; and he has ſince had the ſatisfaction to ſee them rapidly increaſe, their fleeces augment in weight, and the wool very viſibly improve in quality. When captain M'Arthur left Port Jackſon in 1801, the heavieſt fleece that had then been ſhorn weighed only three pounds and a half: but he has received reports of 1802, from which he learns that the fleeces of his ſheep were increaſed to five pounds each, and that the wool is finer and ſofter than the wool of the preceding year. The fleece of one of the ſheep originally imported from the Cape of Good Hope has been valued here at four ſhillings and ſixpence per pound, and a fleece of the ſame kind bred in New South Wales is eſtimated at ſix ſhillings per pound.

Being once in poſſeſſion of this valuable breed, and having aſcertained that they improved in that climate, he became anxious to extend them as much as poſſible; he therefore croſſed all the mixed bred ewes, of which his flocks were compoſed, with Spaniſh rams. The lambs produced from this croſs were much improved; but, when they were again croſſed, the change far exceeded his moſt ſanguine expectations. In four croſſes, he is of opinion, no diſtinction will be perceptible between the pure and the mixed breed. As a proof of the extraordinary and rapid improvement of his flocks, captain M'Arthur has exhibited the fleece of a coarſe-woolled ewe that has been valued at ninepence a pound; and the fleece of her lamb, begotten by a Spaniſh ram, which is allowed to be worth 3s. a pound.

Captain M'Arthur has now about four thouſand ſheep, among which there are no rams but of the Spaniſh breed. He calculates that they will, with proper care, double themſelves every two years and a half; and that in twenty years they will be ſo increaſed as to produce as much fine wool as is now imported from Spain and other countries at an annual expence of 1,800,000l ſterling. To make the principle perfectly plain upon which captain M'Arthur founds this expectation, he begs to ſtate, that half his flock has been raiſed from thirty ewes, purchaſed in 1793, out of a ſhip from India, and from about eight or ten Spaniſh and Iriſh ſheep purchaſed ſince. The other half of his flock were obtained in 1801, by purchaſes from an officer who had raiſed them in the ſame time, and from about the ſame number of ewes that captain M'Arthur commenced with. This ſtatement proves that the ſheep have hitherto multiplied more rapidly than it is calculated they will do in future; but this is attributed to the firſt ewes being of a more prolific kind than the Spaniſh ſheep are found to be; for, ſince captain M'Arthur has directed his attention to that breed, he has obſerved the ewes do not ſo often produce double lambs.

As a further confirmation of the principle of increaſe that captain M'Arthur has endeavoured to eſtabliſh, and which he is poſitive time will prove to be correct, he would refer to the general returns tranſmitted from New South Wales. In 1796 (ſince when not one hundred ſheep have been imported) 1531 were returned as the public and private ſtock of the colony. In 1801, 6757 were returned; and although between thoſe periods all the males have been killed as ſoon as they became fit, yet there is a ſurplus over the calculation of 633.

Captain M'Arthur is ſo convinced of the practicability of ſupplying this country with any quantity of fine wool it may require, that he is earneſtly ſolicitous to proſecute this, as it appears to him an important object; and on his return to New South Wales to devote his whole attention to accelerate its complete attainment. All the riſk attendant on the undertaking he will cheerfully bear: he will require no pecuinary aid: and all the encouragement he humbly ſolicits for is the protection of government, permiſſion to occupy a ſufficient tract of unoccupied lands to feed his flocks, and the indulgence of ſelecting from among the convicts ſuch men for ſhepherds as may, from their previous occupations, know ſomething of the buſineſs.

London, July 26, 1803. (Signed) JOHN M'ARTHUR.

METHOD OF MAKING ARTIFICIAL YEAST.

THE following method is employed in Germany and Sweden for making artificial yeaſt. To one hundred pounds of the beſt malt, conſiſting of one part of malted wheat and two parts of malted barley, dried in the open air, and well ground and bruiſed, add ten pounds of good hops, and brew the mixture with 350 pounds of water, to form wort. After a ſhort boiling ſeparate the grains and hops from the wort; which laſt, by continued boiling, may be reduced to 175lbs.. Cool it down as ſoon as poſſible to 70 degrees of Fahrenheit, and then mix it with 32lbs. of yeaſt; the firſt time may be of common brewers yeaſt, but in every ſubſequent operation of the artificial. The wort will ſoon ferment, and in a few hours it will be covered with a thick yeaſty froth; the whole maſs muſt then be ſtrongly agitated, and at the ſame time well mixed with from 50 to 75 lbs. of fine ground meal, of wheat or barley, malted or unmalted. In a cool place this yeaſt will keep ten or fifteen days in ſummer, and four or five weeks in winter. It is ſaid to be as good as the beſt common yeaſt for the uſe of brewers, diſtillers, bakers, and paſtrycooks.

ELIZA LASCELLS: A TALE.

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THE idea of Eliza not reſting well, except in her own apartment, was a ſufficient inducement to Mrs. Laſcells to relinquiſh the thought ſhe had before entertained, and, requeſting her to retire, ſhe promiſed to bring ſomething warm to her, and ſtrongly recommended a baſin of whey. Theſe proofs of maternal tenderneſs were abſolute daggers to the heart of Eliza, and the moment ſhe entered her apartment ſhe threw herſelf into a chair, exclaiming, 'Oh, Peggy, it is impoſſible for me to deceive ſuch a mother! I cannot, Oh! I cannot be guilty of ſuch a crime.'

'Crime, do you call it, Miſs Laſcells (ſaid the artful attendant): do you call it a crime to ſave poor dear Mr. Charlton's life! for I am ſure, if you ſhould go for to deceive him after your promiſe, that he would not live, no not an hour. Oh, Ma'me, you know not how he adores you! I am ſure, even to hear him talk about you, is enough to break one's heart.'—'And does not my mother adore me, Peggy?' inquired Eliza: 'did ever parent ſo completely ſtudy the happineſs of her child? yet, ſhall I ungratefully return all her kindneſs? Oh! I wiſh that, at this moment, Heaven would put a period to my life!'—'It is a ſign, miſs, you do not ſtudy the Scriptures,' rejoined Peggy; 'for do they not ſay, that a man ſhould leave father and mother, and cleave to his wife? And is there not, think ye, miſs, a ſtill greater duty required from us, who are bound to love and obey the men? But why ſhould I talk of duty, where love is in the queſtion? Beſides, you can leave a letter to my miſtreſs that will ſet her heart at eaſe; and all I have to ſay, is, that if you go for to cheat Mr. Charlton, he'll be a corpſe before this time to-morrow night, and you'll never have another moment of happineſs, for his ſpirit will haunt you for breaking your vow.'—'Say no more Peggy, in pity, I intreat you; my fate is decided, and I muſt keep my vow; but millions would I give, were they in my poſſeſſion, to avoid again ſeeing the author of my birth.'—'Slip into bed then, miſs, and only put on your night-cap,' ſaid Peggy, 'and when my miſtreſs comes, I'll pretend you are aſleep.' Eliza followed the advice which was given her, and, when her attached parent entered, cloſed her eyes. The holding up a finger, conveyed the pleaſing intelligence to Mrs. Laſcells, that the object of her ſolicitude had already obtained repoſe; and, after gazing upon her a few minutes, ſhe delivered the beverage to Peggy, deſiring her to keep it warm until her beloved Eliza awoke. As ſoon as this amiable parent had quitted the chamber, the artful domeſtic aſſembled the already packed up trunks, and Eliza aroſe from her reclining poſture, to write a few lines to the author of her birth.

The time mentioned by Edward approached rapidly; two or three letters were written, and ſucceſſively torn, when the clock ſtruck twelve, and the ſound ſeemed to petrify and ſuſpend the pulſation of this deluded girl's heart. The impatient Peggy increaſed the agitation of her feelings. 'If you wait five minutes longer, miſs,' ſhe exclaimed, 'Mr. Charlton will not be alive.' 'Let the conſequence be what it will,' replied Eliza, firmly, 'I will not go until I have written my mother a few lines;' and again, ſeizing the pen with a hand ſcarce able to guide it, ſhe delineated the few following words:—

'Oh, my dear mother, how have I deceived you! but I have been bound to ſecrecy by a moſt ſolemn

vow. Edward dreaded you ſhould inform his father of our intended marriage, but in the courſe of a fortnight he will again conduct me to your arms. Deareſt of parents, what an age ſhall I think it! Never, for a day, have I been ſeparated from your ſight. A thouſand times have I been on the point of throwing myſelf on my knees before you, and acknowledging the plan which had been formed for my flight. Can you, will you, pardon this only act of diſobedience? Will you with open arms receive your repentant child? The mere dread of your diſpleaſure drives me to diſtraction. Yet, ſurely, you cannot object to Edward Charlton for a ſon? He is already provided with a ſpecial licence, and an intimate friend is to meet us at the firſt inn, who, with Peggy and his ſervant, are to be the only witneſſes of the marriage; and, after it is performed, we are to make a tour for a few days.—An aunt of my Edward's has promiſed to paint our mutual attachment to his father, and, if he ſhould prove inexorable, to ſettle upon us five hundred a-year. Oh, my mother, let me but hope that you will bleſs our union: for, deprived of that, I ſhall be a wretch indeed.

ELIZA LASCELLS.'

With trembling hands Eliza folded up this epiſtle, and with faultering footſteps deſcended the ſtairs; but, upon opening the garden gate, found herſelf encircled in the arms of the man in whoſe honour ſhe relied.—'On my knees let me thank you, my adorable Eliza, for this foretaſte of felicity, this anticipation of delight,' exclaimed the enraptured Edward, after reſpectfully embracing her; 'and now, my adored angel, let me conduct you to the chaiſe!'—Inſtead of conducting, he was abſolutely obliged to ſupport her; for the conflicting emotions ſhe endured completely overpowered her frame; and the carriage had proceeded a conſiderable diſtance before ſhe recovered the uſe of her ſpeech. Upon ſtopping at the appointed inn, a clergyman met the carriage, who addreſſed Edward by remarking, they were half an hour beyond the time; and upon entering an apartment, Eliza beheld an open prayer-book lying upon the table, and refreſhments of various kinds already prepared.

'Now, my betrothed wife,' exclaimed the eager Edward, 'now my ardent affection is to meet with its reward! Come, Mr. Bullard, delay not the ceremony, and then we will partake of the marriage feaſt.' Peggy and Edward's valet were inſtantly ſummoned into the apartment, and the willing prieſt performed the ſacred rites. Eliza could not be perſuaded to take any refreſhment, but, in indiſcribable agitation retired. At ſix o'clock the next morning, the carriage was ordered, and the new married pair proceeded to a ſmall houſe which Edward had engaged, from whence a letter was to be diſpatched to Mrs. Laſcells, to make her acquainted with the event which had taken place.

While Eliza was uniting her fate to that of Edward Charlton, her too anxious parent was paſſing a ſleepleſs night, for the dejection which Eliza had diſplayed throughout the whole of the preceding evening had exerted the moſt alarming emotions in her mind. As the morning dawned, however, exhauſted nature ſeemed to require the refreſhing aid of ſleep; and it was beyond the uſual hour of riſing, when Peggy received a ſummons from her miſtreſs; but, inſtead of the ſame being anſwered by Peggy, a little girl entered who Mrs. Laſcells had hired to do the inferior work, and informed her that her fellow-ſervant had not made her appearance, and had not ſlept in her own bed. Terrified at the idea of Eliza's increaſed indiſpoſition, ſhe ſlipped on a wrapping gown, and hurried into her room; but judge of the dreadful ſtate of her feelings, when the object of her ſolicitude was not to be found. The untouched whey ſtood upon the

table, and the unſealed letter lay by its ſide. 'My child, my child!' was all the wretched parent could articulate, while the fountain of tears ſeemed totally to be dried up. Throwing herſelf on that bed from which Eliza had ariſen, ſhe remained for ſome moments unable to move; at length, ſhe called upon the name of Mr. Herbert, and her alarmed little attendant flew inſtantly to his houſe. That worthy man inſtantly obeyed the ſummons; the ill-fated Mrs. Laſcells was ſtill reclining on the bed, and the letter which was to convey the intelligence of Eliza's marriage ſtill remained unopened in her hand.

The ſight of Mr. Herbert ſeemed to awaken thoſe emotions which a ſhock ſo unexpected for a time had abſorbed, and exclaiming, 'Oh that I ſhould have lived to feel this exceſs of anguiſh!' She ſtretched out the hand which contained the letter, and burſt into tears. The agitation of the worthy rector, was little inferior to that of the diſconſolate Mrs. Laſcells. 'An aunt ſettle five hundred a-year upon them!' ſaid the aſtoniſhed Mr. Herbert, in a tone of doubt. 'Gracious Powers!' exclaimed the ſtill more agitated parent: 'Surely he has not added deception to his other crimes!—Oh! Mr. Herbert, he cannot have betrayed my Eliza! Rather, far rather, would I hear of her death.' Mr. Herbert, ſhocked that an unguarded word ſhould have eſcaped him, which ſeemed to add to afflictions already too great to bear, endeavoured to convince her, that there could not be a doubt of their marriage, and offered to undertake the office of reconciling ſir Charles himſelf. For this purpoſe the worthy man determined to ſet out inſtantly for London, knowing that the account of an aunt was a mere fabricated tale, and believing that a young man who had acted with ſuch unpardonable deception, was capable of being guilty of ſtill greater crimes. Of the validity of the marriage he even entertained ſuſpicions, though theſe from Mrs. Laſcells he carefully concealed: but he determined to trace the fugitives to the farthelt part of the kingdom, and himſelf perform the office of a prieſt.

After endeavouring to ſooth the feelings of this unfortunate mother, in which friendly office he had at length the good fortune to ſucceed, he mounted his horſe, rode to the firſt town, and waited until the ſetting off of the ſtage. Upon his arrival in London, he had the mortification of hearing that ſir Charles Charlton was at Richmond, and would not return until the following day; and, upon inquiring for his ſon, he was informed by the ſervants that he ſet off a ſhort time before, to make the tour of Wales. Nothing therefore could be done until ſir Charles's arrival; time ſeemed to move with additional weight, but, at the hour mentioned by ſir Charles's domeſtics, he had the pleaſure of hearing he was returned. When the baronet was firſt made acquainted with his ſon's deceptious conduct, his rage and indignation knew no bounds; but, when he was cool enough to hear reaſon, and diſcovered that the object of his affection was the very being who had called forth his admiration, grief and regret predominated over rage.

'I fear,' ſaid ſir Charles, 'that he has ſeduced, inſtead of marrying her; for I am ſorry, Mr. Herbert, to tell you, he is capable of any baſe deſign; and his extravagance has been ſuch, that he has frequently told me, he muſt have a woman of fortune for a wife.'—'So young, and yet ſo artful!' ſighed forth Mr. Herbert; 'I never in my life was ſo completely deceived; his conduct, when with me, appeared irreproachable, and I hope, ſir Charles, he is not the villain you conceive.'—'It is you who have been deceived, ſir,' replied the baronet dejectedly, 'as theſe letters will too completely prove:' ſo ſaying, he opened a drawer of his writing-deſk, and ſeveral letters from

two farmers in Mr. Herbert's neighbourhood were produced. They repreſented Edward Charlton as the deſtroyer of their daughter's honour, each having proved a mother nearly at the ſame time, and as they knew marriage of courſe would be out of the queſtion, they implored ſir Charles, as a man of honour, to take the charge of the child. To this requeſt it ſeems he had conſented, and, in delicacy to the ill-fated young women, the affair was concealed; but the apprehenſions of Mr. Herbert were greatly augmented by the conviction which the peruſal of theſe letters inſtantly gave.

'He ſhall marry her, I ſwear by Heaven!' exclaimed ſir Charles in a firm accent; 'but how are we to diſcover them? for I do not believe they are in Wales:' at that moment the door opened, and ſir George Freelove, an intimate friend of Edward's, unceremoniouſly entered the room. The countenance of both gentlemen diſplayed evident emotion, which this diſſipated young man inſtantly perceived; and believing that ſir Charles had come to the knowledge of Edward's elopement, he ſaid, 'You ſeem uneaſy, my dear ſir; have you heard any thing that has alarmed you reſpecting your ſon?'—'Can you give me any intelligence that you think likely to diſperſe the impreſſion?' replied the baronet; 'tell me, ſir George, is he, or is he not, a married man?'—'Married!' rejoined the thoughtleſs Freelove, in a tone of aſtoniſhment; 'why, my dear ſir Charles, did you really believe he would be guilty of ſuch a piece of folly as that?'—'I actually was told that he had obtained a ſpecial licence, and that he had married a young lady in the vicinity of York, and that himſelf and the partner of his affection were at this time making the tour of South Wales.'—'Well then, my dear ſir, I can ſet your mind at tranquillity, and tell you that he is now at a ſnug little cottage not thirty miles from York; the object of his tenderneſs certainly is with him, but I aſſure you he has not an idea of going into Wales. The girl, I find, has had an old faſhioned education, and, though loving him to diſtraction, marriage was the conſtant theme, ſo Edward, by way of putting her into good humour, perſuaded Tom Bullard to perform the ſolemn functions of a prieſt: but in love, as well as war, manœuvres of all kinds are allowable, and marriage, I aſſure you, never entered Ned's mind.' So eager was he to exculpate his friend from the crime of matrimony, that he paid no attention to the effect which his converſation produced; but when he came to the laſt ſentence, his eyes were directed toward Mr. Herbert, whoſe countenance was expreſſive both of horror and ſurpriſe. The idea that he was the father of his friend's miſtreſs ſtruck him, and, ſhocked at the diſcloſure he had made, he hurried out of the room, ſtammering out an apology for juſt recollecting an engagement, which he was fearful he ſhould not be able to keep.

'Great God! what iniquity prevails in this metropolis;' exclaimed Mr. Herbert, while tears of ſympathy for the fate of Eliza trembled in his eyes. 'Poor deluded girl, and ſtill more unfortunate mother of her, how ſhall I have courage to communicate this iniquitous tale!'—'We muſt bury it in our boſoms,' replied the worthy ſir Charles Charlton; 'and, above all, the victim of his perfidy muſt be for ever a ſtranger to his crimes. I will order the carriage immediately; you muſt procure a licence, and, with the hints we have had from Freelove, we ſhall eaſily diſcover their retreat.' The licence was procured; four poſt horſes ordered, and the worthy pair proceeded with the utmoſt rapidity toward York, and, when they came within thirty miles of that city, they left their carriage at an inn, and reconnoitred all the pictureſque cottages on foot. For three days they unſucceſsfully made their reſearches, and, on the fourth,

moved their quarters to the other ſide of York, and, at the firſt inn they ſtopped to make the neceſſary inquiries, they heard that a gentleman and lady of the name of Larchton lived about two miles from the houſe. Upon drawing a compariſon between the letters which formed the names of Charlton and Larchton, it was eaſy to diſcover they were exactly the ſame; therefore no doubt remained upon the minds of the travellers that they had diſcovered the objects of whom they were in ſearch. They learned from the landlord of the inn, that the houſe had been taken by ſir George Freelove; that the lady and gentleman who inhabited it were his friends, and that, from the time of their coming to it, they had never even walked to the neighbouring town.

Sir Charles inſtantly deſired dinner to be prepared for them, and a poſt chaiſe to be at the door at half paſt eight. He then waited upon the clergyman of the pariſh, and requeſted, at half paſt eight the next morning, the uſe of his church. The carriage was at the door at the time it had been ordered; the ſhades of evening began to cloſe; but they alighted about a hundred yards from the elegant little dwelling where unſuſpicious innocence and villainy repoſed. Knocking ſoftly at the door, it was opened by Edward's valet, whoſe pallid countenance evinced terror and ſurpriſe. 'Not a word, ſir,' ſaid ſir Charles, in a low but decided accent: 'Return to the kitchen, while I go to my ſon.' The terrified man inſtantly obeyed the mandate, while ſir Charles and Mr. Herbert approached the parlour door, and opening it with the greateſt precaution, beheld Edward ſleeping upon a ſofa, while the countenance of Eliza was bathed in tears. An involuntary ſhriek from the deluded fair-one rouſed Edward from the attitude in which he had reclined; but, when the perſons of his father and Mr. Herbert were preſented before him, his embarraſſment was ſo great that he was unable to ſpeak.

'Save me, my Edward, from the reſentment of your father!' exclaimed the agitated Eliza, clinging round her ſuppoſed huſband's arm. 'Be not apprehenſive, my dear madam,' ſaid ſir Charles in a ſoft accent; 'my reſentment, I aſſure you, is wholly confined to my ſon. For half an hour, Mr. Herbert, I will place Mrs. Charlton under your protection, and at our return I hope to have the pleaſure of finding her more compoſed. Come, ſir,' continued he, taking the arm of Edward, 'I have a few words to repeat to your private ear.' Sir Charles waited not for a reply to this declaration, but led his ſon out of the room, and, when they had got to a diſtance, where their voices could not be diſtinguiſhed, he addreſſed him in the following words:—'And is it thus, ſir, you fulfil the duty you owe your father? Is it thus you fulfil the engagement you have formed with the daughter of my friend? Have you not times innumerable told me, that you muſt marry a woman of fortune and rank?'—'I know I have, ſir Charles,' replied the embarraſſed Edward; 'and, at a future period, I mean to fulfil your deſires: miſs Lexington can never know of this little piece of gallantry, and my apology to you muſt be the ſuperiority of Eliza's charms.'—'Are you not married then?' inquired the baronet, appearing ignorant of the circumſtance. 'No, ſir, I am not, I aſſure you upon my ſoul.'—'Villain,' exclaimed ſir Charles, 'deteſtable villain, upon one condition only will I ever acknowledge you for my ſon. Young you are in years, but old in iniquity; and I grieve that ſo amiable a girl as miſs Laſcells ſhould have made ſuch a choice; but her character muſt be preſerved, though I fear her happineſs will be ſacrificed, and before nine o'clock to-morrow morning you ſhall make her your wife.' Edward was now going to

interrupt his father: 'Silence, ſir,' ſaid he, 'for I will not receive a reply; it is not merely ſufficient that you marry her, and that in my preſence, but you muſt ſwear in the moſt ſacred manner, ſhe ſhall never know of your deceit. There are but few perſons who are acquainted with your iniquitous project—your ſervants, the woman who waits upon your pretended wife, and the villain who dared to take upon him a ſacred function, and became the agent of a moſt deteſtable crime. The two former I ſhall ſend abroad immediately; if they preſerve the ſecret, I will grant them an annuity for life; but, if they betray it, the laws of their country ſhall puniſh them, and I need not tell you they are pretty ſevere in ſuch a caſe. As to that villain Bullard, I know how to bind him to ſecrecy, for he has been guilty of an act that puts his very life in my power; and it would equally ruin the character of ſir George Freelove, if it was known that he had aided ſuch an iniquitous deſign. To account to the ill-fated girl for my chuſing to ſee the marriage celebrated, I have requeſted Mr. Herbert to tell her, that private unions are improper where the children are likely to become heirs to great eſtates, as they not only lead to litigious diſputes frequently, but involve the parties in unneceſſary expence.'

During this converſation, Edward never attempted to interrupt his father, but, when he came to the cloſe, he merely ſaid he was too good, without expreſſing any of that delight which it was natural to imagine he muſt have felt at the proſpect of receiving his father's permiſſion to make the lovely Eliza his wife. This indifference proceeded from the natural verſatility of his diſpoſition, and poſſeſſion blunted the edge of delight; for that very woman whom he had loved with a phrenzy of paſſion, he rather felt a repugnance to making his wife. The large fortune of miſs Lexington glittered before his imagination, and he caſt a longing look toward the ſplendid enjoyments it would procure: ſtill, however, he found it neceſſary to conceal his ſenſations from his father, and implored him never to mention this act of villainy any more.

The moment Eliza found herſelf alone with Mr. Herbert, the trepidation which overſpread her ſeemed to increaſe; at length, upon his taking her tenderly by the hand, ſhe ſighed forth, 'I am unworthy of this kindneſs; but tell me, O tell me, is my beloved mother well?'—'As well, my dear Eliza, as ſhe can be, after the unexpected ſhock you gave her,' replied Mr. Herbert, in an affectionate tone of voice, 'but I truſt ſhe will be better in the courſe of a few days; for, though ſir Charles of courſe muſt be diſpleaſed with his ſon for an act of abſolute diſobedience, he means openly to acknowledge you as Edward's wife; and, as private unions ſometimes are attended with unpleaſant conſequences, I am to-morrow morning to perform the ceremony in a neighbouring pariſh church, that a proper regiſter may be made of the circumſtance, and that your children (if you have any) may be the undiſputed heirs to the eſtates. But let me inquire, my deareſt girl,' continued the friendly Mr. Herbert, ſtill ſoftening his accents, 'what could have occaſioned thoſe tears which I beheld upon entering the room? No diſagreement of opinion could ſurely have occurred already, for it is but an early ſtage of the honey moon.'—'Oh no, my dear ſir,' replied the bluſhing Eliza, but Mr. Charlton had been wiſhing me to accompany him to town, though he abſolutely promiſed, before my marriage, that I ſhould return to my deareſt mother in leſs than a month. I fear he finds the place rather dull for him, and he has invited ſir George Freelove to come down, which I ventured to ſay I did not think quite proper, until he had received an anſwer from his aunt.'

The converſation was interrupted by the entrance of the gentlemen, when Eliza attempted to throw herſelf at ſir Charles's feet: from this act of humiliation ſhe was prevented by the baronet, who affectionately embraced her, and led her to a ſeat. 'My worthy friend Herbert,' ſaid he, 'I truſt, Mrs. Charlton, has told you that I am a mighty whimſical ſort of a man; in ſhort it is ſo long ſince I have been at a wedding, that I am determined to have you married again.'—'Mr. Herbert has convinced me, ſir Charles, that you are all goodneſs, and I find language inadequate to expreſs what I feel; but my whole life will be ſpent in endeavouring to prove to you, that ingratitude is not one of the failings of my heart.'

If ſir Charles had been ſtruck with the manners of Eliza when he firſt beheld her, he found himſelf ſtill more delighted with her before the cloſe of the night, and he was almoſt tempted to wiſh that ſhe had been leſs amiable, as he feared his ſon was incapable of appreciating her worth.

When his intended daughter-in-law retired to reſt, he inquired what plan Edward intended adopting for the ſupport of the woman whom he had ſeduced? when he calmly informed him he intended returning to college, and that Eliza muſt reſide in her mother's houſe.

'I highly approve of your plan of returning to college,' replied ſir Charles Charlton, 'becauſe it will be neceſſary that you take your degree; but out of the handſome allowance which I have hitherto made you, do you not think it neceſſary to make Mrs. Laſcells a compliment for the board of your wife?'—'That compliment, my dear ſir, I ſhould ſuppoſe you will pay her, as it is in obedience to your orders that I am going to become a married man. I love miſs Laſcells, it is true, I did love her to diſtraction, but I had never an idea of attending her to church.'

Sir Charles was ſo much enraged at theſe diſſipated ſentiments, that it was with the utmoſt difficulty that his anger could be appeaſed; and he declared in the moſt ſolemn manner, that unleſs he made a good huſband, his wife and her children ſhould poſſeſs the whole of his eſtate. Mr. Herbert had always felt a degree of parental tenderneſs for Eliza, and he began to think it would be even better to publiſh her diſgrace than to ſuffer her union with ſuch a man, particularly after having heard him avow to his father, that the paſſion which he had felt was on the decline. Yet, when he reflected upon the peculiar delicacy of Mrs. Laſcells ſentiments, he felt convinced ſhe would not ſurvive the diſhonour of her child; and though he knew that miſery muſt be the conſequence of the marriage, he thought it would be preferable to public diſgrace. Sir Charles propoſed that the day after the ceremony the whole party ſhould proceed to Mrs. Laſcells' houſe, and as Edward began to grow ſick of retirement, he very readily conſented to the plan: Their preſent reſidence belonged to ſir George Freelove, and the perſon who had the care of it lived only at the diſtance of a mile; therefore it was very eaſy to reinſtate her in the ſtation ſhe had occupied; but it was neceſſary that Peggy and Edward's valet ſhould be immediately ſent to town. Terrified by the baronet's threats, they agreed to his propoſal, and as ſir Charles had property in the Weſt Indies, he determined to ſend them there; and as Thompſon, which was the name of the man, was a very clever fellow, the agent was deſired to make him overſeer.

The day of the marriage was ſpent in making the neceſſary preparations for the removal of the whole family on the following morn; a ſervant of ſir Charles's was ſent to Mrs. Laſcells, to prepare her for the reception of her daughter and ſon.

To that moſt attached of mothers Mr. Herbert had written immediately after his interview with ſir Charles,

but had carefully concealed from her the iniquitous plans of Edward, and only gave her ſuch intelligence as was likely to ſooth her mind. He informed her they had obtained intimation of the rout the runaways had taken, and that they were going to purſue them with the utmoſt ſpeed; that ſir Charles was completely reconciled to the marriage, and that he flattered himſelf all would yet be well. Having received this pleaſing intelligence through the medium of the worthy rector, ſhe was in ſome meaſure prepared for the reception of her gueſts; yet, ſo completely was ſhe overpowered by a variety of emotions, that the moment ſhe peruſed ſir Charles's letter ſhe fainted away. That exquiſite ſenſibility which ſhe had endeavoured to repreſs in her daughter, agitated every nerve in her own boſom with ſenſations of delight; and never were the following lines more completely verified, or the juſtice of them felt in a more eminent degree:

'Tis bliſs, but to a certain bound;
Beyond, is agony.

Tedious appeared the hours, ſlow moved the minutes, until the period arrived which was to reſtore her daughter to her arms: at length, ſhe beheld two poſt-chaiſes and four approaching, but ſo violent were her emotions, that ſhe was unable to riſe from her ſeat: in the firſt were ſir Charles and Mr. Herbert; in the ſecond, the repentant Eliza, and the man to whom ſhe had betrothed her faith. Sir Charles waited to hand her out of the carriage, and was actually obliged to ſupport her to her mother's feet. The extended arms of Mrs. Laſcells were open to receive her, and, preſſing her in tranſports to her boſom, ſhe exclaimed, 'Do I once more embrace my child! Oh, my Eliza, far dearer are you to me than exiſtence! But oh, what anguiſh, what tortures have I endured!' 'Wretch that I am,' ſaid the trembling Eliza, wetting her mother's boſom with her tears, 'but for Heaven's ſake, my beloved mother, ſay you will forgive me; ſay, you will pardon a ſeverely repented crime!'—'I forgive you from my heart,' ſaid the attached mother; 'and may my bleſſing enſure both your happineſs and peace. And you, Edward,' continued ſhe, extending a hand toward him, 'I ſhall henceforth regard with the affection of a ſon; I am compenſated for all my ſufferings by this unexpected meeting, and my gratitude to ſir Charles will ceaſe but with my life.'—'The word gratitude between friends, madam, ſounds rather diſcordantly; and as ſuch I hope henceforth you will permit me to rank: theſe young people have thought proper to cement our intereſts, and we muſt mutually endeavour to make them as happy as we can.

In the courſe of the day ſir Charles took an opportunity of informing Mrs. Laſcells, that a place of great truſt under government had been promiſed to his ſon; but that he wiſhed him to take his degrees at the univerſity, and that it would be neceſſary for him to return to Cambridge in the courſe of a month; but that, from the preſent period, he ſhould ſettle five hundred a-year upon his daughter in law. It is impoſſible for the power of language to do juſtice to Mrs. Laſcells' feelings, but her happineſs was certainly at its climax that day; ſhe was then totally ignorant of her ſon-in-law's diſpoſition, and ſhe looked forward to a ſucceſſion of undiminiſhed delights.

[To be continued.]

ANECDOTE *of an* ITALIAN SCHOOL-MASTER. *Taken from* PETARCH'S LIFE.

To the Editor of the Univerſal Magazine.

Sir,

THOUGH it muſt be allowed that ſuperior abilities ſometimes excite envy, yet their poſſeſſors are frequently regarded with a kind of enthuſiaſtic delight; and we even feel an attachment to the ſpots where learning and genius flouriſhed, unleſs apathy, or ignorance, deſtroys the ſenſibilities of the mind. Who could behold the enchanting views of Twickenham without connecting with them an idea of the immortal ſhade of Pope? or who could paſs through the inviting groves of Hagley, without having the image of the fair Lucy preſented to their view? Can we gaze upon the ſpot which Shenſtone took ſuch delight in cultivating, without lamenting the loſs of genius, and taſte? or, in ſhort, can we even read an account of Roman antiquities without feeling a wiſh to have ſeen what has ſo frequently been deſcribed?

If inanimate objects have the power of exciting theſe ſenſations, we cannot be aſtoniſhed at the emotions which living excellence inſpires; and in Mrs. Dobſon's life of Petarch a ſingular inſtance is recorded of the effects which ſuperior talents are able to produce.—A ſchoolmaſter of Pont-Remoli, both blind and aged, was an enthuſiaſtic admirer of Petarch's works, and being informed he was at Naples, ſet out on foot to *ſee* him, for this was actually the term which the old man uſed. His ſon, a mere youth, was the companion of his journey, and his guide in this pedeſtrian tour; but when they arrived at Naples, they received the mortifying intelligence, that the elegant poet had proceeded to Rome. The news of a blind man having travelled to behold a luminary of literature, immediately reached the ears of the king, and he ſent for him to court, told him he muſt make the tour of Italy, and, if he did not find him, purſue him to France. 'I muſt ſee him before I die,' replied his enthuſiaſtic admirer; 'and to obtain that gratification, I would travel to the end of the globe.' The king was ſo delighted with the ardour of his expreſſions, that he furniſhed him with money to proſecute his ſcheme. He inſtantly ſet out for Rome, but Petarch had left it, and returned to Pont-Remoli by a different rout. He followed the *light*, which, like an *ignus fatuus*, ſeemed to illumine but to deceive. Petarch had quitted Pont-Remoli, and was gone to Parma, to reach which place it was neceſſary to croſs the Appenines; but neither the fatigue of travelling, or the frigid atmoſphere which ſurrounded him, could repel his ardour, or divert him from his deſign. Upon his arrival at Parma, he announced the purpoſe of his journey in a copy of verſes, which he ſent to the man whoſe talents he ſo much admired; and, when he arrived at Petarch's houſe, he begged his ſon to raiſe him upon his ſhoulders, that he might touch the head which had conceived ſuch a variety of noble thoughts. He then begged permiſſion to kiſs the hand of Petarch. 'Oh,' ſaid he, 'let me but embrace the hand which has written ſuch delightful things!' Three days this ſingular character remained at Parma, enjoying the ſociety of the man who had excited ſuch tranſports in his mind, and then returned to his native city, ſatisfied with his exertion, which muſt have been conſidered as a fatigue by men in the prime of life.

C. B.

OBSERVATIONS *of the* MILITARY *and* NAVAL FORCES *of* RUSSIA.

[By M. Mentelle, Profeſſor of Geography in the Normal Schools in France.]

THE adminiſtration of the war department in Ruſſia is entruſted to a college, compoſed of a preſident, vice-preſident, and ſeveral members of different ranks, who are ſelected from the armies, and likewiſe a great number of ſubaltern officers. Every general of diviſion has his chancery, as well as every regiment, and the latter conſtantly attend the army. They keep a regular regiſter of all the orders iſſued by the generals, and the commanding officers of corps, and likewiſe of the reports made by officers of every rank. Every petty order is committed to writing, which produces embarraſſment, and tediouſneſs without end. By a decree of Peter I, no order is to be attended to unleſs delivered in writing. A compliance with this regulation, which was carried to extremity, occaſioned once, on the day of battle, a general to refuſe executing the orders of the commander in chief, becauſe they were delivered verbally to him. Such rigid exactneſs, however, is only apparent, and does not prevent numberleſs diſorders, which are occaſioned by the ſoft, indolent, and corrupt character of the Ruſſians. The negligence of their war-office is ſo great, that a regiment of infantry, a few years back, was diſcovered to be miſſing, without the knowledge of the adminiſtrators of that department. They were obliged to ſend orders into the provinces, to procure intelligence reſpecting that regiment. After ſome trouble, it was found, that after the peace of Carinardgi, it had remained on the frontiers of Kouban, without knowing to what garriſon it was to be ordered; and was waiting patiently for inſtructions on that head. The Ruſſian colonels conſider their regiments in the light of lucrative emoluments, which they well know how to turn to their advantage, and acquire a fortune by them before they arrive at the rank of general, which has no profit annexed to it, except the ſtated pay. Every regiment is ſuppoſed to produce a revenue of four thouſand ducats to its proprietor, and the colonels manage matters ſo well, that in eight years they become maſters of half a million of livres. There are no regular contracts for the forage of the cavalry, nor the equipment and cloathing of the troops. The common ſoldier does every thing; he is tailor, baker, ſhoemaker, ſadler, blackſmith, &c. and every regiment has two companies attached to what is called the *depot*, which comprehends every neceſſary article in the army. It is evident that this arrangement muſt diminiſh the number of effective men fit for ſervice. The raiſing of recruits for the Ruſſian army is a ſpecies of revenue which the nobles pay to the monarch, according to the time of war or peace, and in proportion to the neceſſity which may be felt for new levies. In ordinary caſes, one man is taken from every five hundred, throughout the whole extent of the empire; but in preſſing emergencies, ſuch as the laſt war with the Turks, they levied a man out of every hundred, a circumſtance that depopulated the country, and irritated the whole order of the nobleſſe. Some proprietors were obliged to furniſh eight hundred recruits, which were rated at four thouſand livres a man. During the laſt war, the total amount of the levies roſe to half a million, and at an expence of two millions to the proprietors, who were otherwiſe harraſſed and perſecuted by the frauds and avidity of the perſons employed in that ſervice. The recruits are expoſed to the ſame oppreſſion, by which they are robbed of one half of the rations of proviſion allowed them by the government, and as theſe vexations are notorious and inſupportable, the wretched recruits deſert on the firſt

opportunity, and people of the foreſts with a ferocious banditti. It often happens, that out of a detachment of five hundred men, one hundred never reach their regiments. Not long ſince, a Ruſſian ſoldier was conſidered individually as one of the beſt in Europe; he was attached, not to his country, but to his habits, and his native home, and very rarely abandoned his colours. A ſevere diſcipline, and the influence of religious prejudices, rendered him formidable in the day of battle. The ſtrength of his conſtitution, and his manner of living, enabled him to endure fatigue, and ſurmount the moſt formidable obſtacles. But theſe times are paſt; foreign war has taught him that he may be more comfortable in any country than his own. His prejudices vaniſh by degrees, and deſertion has become very frequent among the Ruſſian troops.

The officers are ſtill worſe than the private men, and for the greater part enter into the ſervice from views of ambition and intereſt. Several who attach themſelves in quality of aide-camps to the generals, come to command regiments without acquiring any knowledge of the ſervice. It muſt be acknowledged, however, that the artillery is on a better footing; it is the department in which there is the leaſt diſorder, and where the greateſt number of men of merit is to be found. But this cannot be ſaid of the engineer corps; ſcarcely can a man be found in it capable of ſurveying a piece of ground, and if any good engineers find their way into the corps, they are natives of other countries. The cavalry alſo is in a bad ſtate, the horſes are neither fed, or trained well, and the horſemen are ill diſciplined. Ruſſia is able to bring into the field an enormous multitude of irregular troops. They are eſtimated at three hundred thouſand men, who, during the time of peace, are no expence to the government. Theſe troops are levied in war time among the Baſhkires, the Kalmoucks, and the Coſaques of the Jaïk, the Don, and the Ukraine. Of all theſe warriors, the Coſaques are conſidered the beſt ſoldiers. In Ruſſia, a ſingular artifice has been adopted to elude the law paſſed by Peter I, by virtue of which no one can arrive at the higher ranks in the army, without regularly paſſing through all the inferior ſituations. As this regulation ſhocked the vanity of the Ruſſian nobleſſe, they took care to enroll their children as ſoldiers, from the moment of their birth; and at the age of five or ſix years, they are promoted to the rank of ſerjeants, and ſo on in ſucceſſion. They often join their regiments with the rank of lieutenant, before they know how to dreſs a company, or have ever ſeen a review. In order to have any poſt at court, it is previouſly requiſite to poſſeſs ſome rank in the army. In the reign of the empreſs Eliſabeth, every lacquey of the court was a captain, and might paſs as ſuch in the army. The governeſs of the maids of honour of the empreſs, as well as the ſuperintendant of the Dutch cows, which that princeſs was pleaſed to keep, had each the rank of colonel.

If abuſes are not ſo frequent at preſent, yet they often produce ridiculous circumſtances. Since the year 1775, the rank of every perſon might be diſcovered by the number of horſes employed in their equipages. Subalterns are only allowed one horſe to their ſledge, or calaſh; captains may have two horſes; field-officers are allowed four; and from the brigadier-general to the lieutenant-general, ſix is the allotted number. The two firſt claſſes of generals, beſide theſe ſix horſes, are preceded by two ſervants on horſeback. Every ſtranger, who wiſhes to paſs ſome time at Peterſburgh, whether artiſt, man of letters, phyſician, &c. is obliged to procure ſome military rank, in order to be admitted into ſociety: he would not be permitted to appear in a box at the theatre, unleſs he had previouſly been promoted to the rank of an

officer. Although the number of troops is not exactly known, yet it appears probable to me, that in the year 1792, they were eſtimated thus:

Infantry	-	339,963
Cavalry	-	66,913
Irregular troops	-	46,401
Total	-	453,277

But this eſtabliſhment is not always kept up complete.

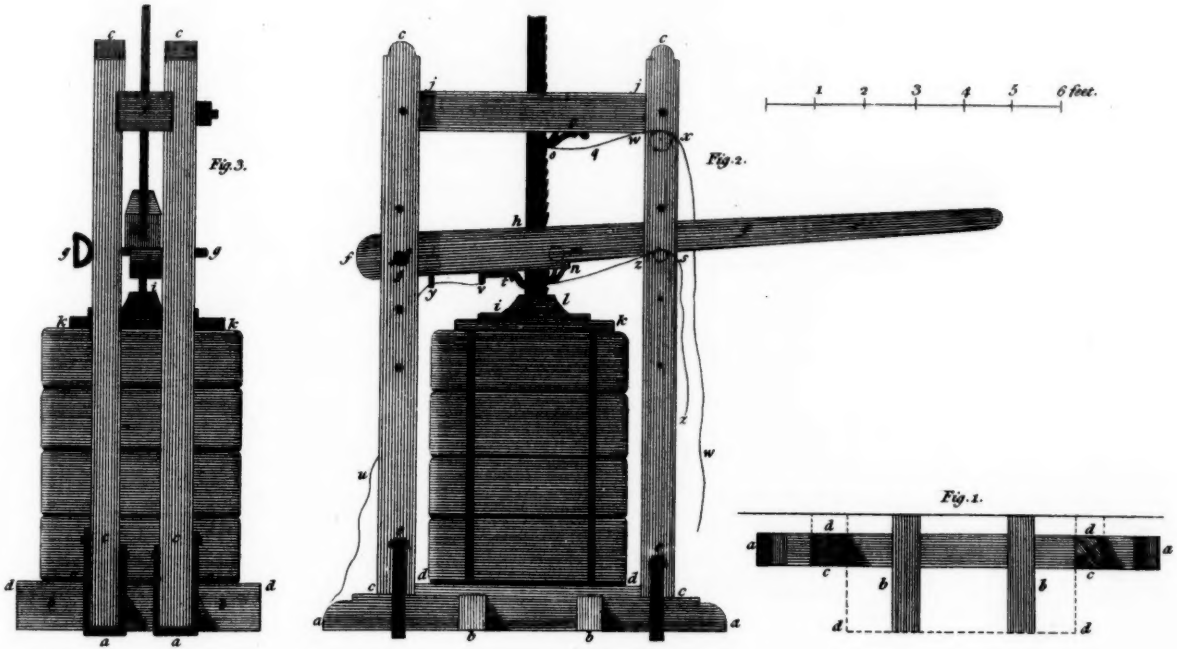
Naval Forces.

Peter I, eſtabliſhed at Cronſtadt, a port for ſhips of war, and a naval force which, after his time, ſunk into decay. Catherine II, formed an eſtabliſhment in the Baltic, and after the conqueſt of the Crimea, ſhe raiſed a powerful navy in the Black Sea. But this princeſs, as well as Peter the Great, was deſtitute of a commercial marine, that might improve the Ruſſian ſailors, nor had they any opportunities of forming officers for the navy, ſo as to render the eſtabliſhment leſs burdenſome to the nation. The following are the particulars which I have been able to diſcover reſpecting the adminiſtration of their naval department. The college of admiralty has the ſupreme management and direction of the Ruſſian navy. There are two officers; one for the equipment of armed ſhips, and the other ſuperintends the victualling and proviſions. Theſe are under the controul of two admirals, who make their reports regularly to the college of admiralty. The miniſter of marine preſides in the college of admiralty, and the commander in chief in the different ports. The marine is divided into two departments, one of the Baltic, and the other of the Black Sea. Since the death of prince Potemkin, the department of the Black Sea, as well as of the Baltic, have been ſubject to the orders of the college of admiralty. Ships are built for the Baltic, at Cronſtadt, Peterſburgh, and Archangel; and for the Black Sea, at Cherſon and Sevaſtopolis. The government of Caſan, furniſhes larger oak than Sweden; it laſts longer when it is in the water, and rots ſooner on dry land.

The port of Cherſon is actually one of the fineſt in Europe: it is ſituate on the Nieper, at ſome diſtance from the mouth of that river. The fortreſs there is completed; there are barracks for twenty-four thouſand men, an admiralty with all its ſtores, an arſenal containing ſix hundred pieces of cannon, ſome public buildings, churches built in a handſome ſtyle, a town of ſome trade, containing more than two hundred houſes, and dockyards where the fleet of the Black Sea is built, with timber brought from Poland. Sevaſtopolis is better ſituate than Cherſon; it lies on the ſoutheaſt coaſt of the Crimea. The port is very large, convenient, and ſafe; the rock which forms its quay, is ſcooped out by nature, ſo that veſſels may lay their broadſides againſt it. The entry of the port is narrow enough to permit the fire of the batteries on both ſides, not only to croſs each other, but even to reach to either ſide with grape ſhot.

Since Ruſſia, as I have ſaid before, has no mercantile marine, ſhe is obliged, in order to ſupport her military marine, to keep up a conſiderable number of ſailors. Their number was eſtimated in the year 1792, at 18,000, for thoſe who ſerved only in the Baltic; and at 8000 for thoſe who are attached to the ſervice in the Black Sea. Of the latter, the greater number are Greeks, and when war takes place, a ſufficient number of men is added to them. The naval force of the Baltic amounts to fifty ſhips of the line, beſide corvettes and flotillas; that of the Black Sea conſiſts of ten ſhips of war, excluſive of corvettes and flotillas. The ordinary expences of the Ruſſian navy are ſuppoſed to be equal to three millions of rubles, which are equivalent to fifteen millions of French money.

Ruſſia imports articles of luxury, and exports raw materials in exchange. The profeſſor of political economy will lay it down as a fundamental



M. Buschenderf's Presses for packing Goods.

maxim, that ſuch a ſpecies of commerce is unfavourable to the nation that follows it, and he will demonſtrate to you the truth of that poſition. The balance of trade, however, has been long in favour of Ruſſia, though of late it has turned againſt that country. In the year 1771, the loſs on the balance of trade was calculated to amount nearly to eighty millions of livres French money; and if we ſpeculate on the progreſs of luxury and refinement, we ſhall have reaſon to preſume that this unfavourable balance is not likely to be improved.

DESCRIPTION *of a* PRESS *for* PACKING *all* KINDS *of* GOODS *with Expedition: invented by M.* Buſchenderf. *Illuſtrated by a Plate.*

[From the Annales des Arts.]

LIGHT, ſoft, and elaſtic ſubſtances uſed in commerce, as wool, cotton, hemp, flax, hops, tobacco, &c. require to be reduced into a ſmall compaſs, to facilitate their carriage, and to preſerve them from the humidity which they would not fail to contract by remaining in warehouſes. Underneath will be found the deſcription of a preſs, invented by M. Buſchenderf, which is cheap, eaſy to be worked, occupies little room, and may not only be employed for packing the abovementioned ſubſtances, but likewiſe for barrelling herrings and flour, for preſſing bales of paper, oil-cloth, and many other purpoſes. This machine is intended to ſave the expence of metal vices and ſcrews, which always come very high, or to obviate the neceſſity of wooden ſcrews, which are very inconvenient when the wood is ſwelled with humidity, the operation being performed by the action of the lever, the power of which may be augmented by increaſing its length.

EXPLANATION OF THE PLATE.

Fig. 1, plan of half the preſs.

a a, the principal foot of the preſs.

b, b, croſs beams faſtened to the feet intended to form a ſolid frame for the bottom of the preſs.

c c, ſection of the two uprights.

d d d d, a ſquare, ſhowing the bottom of the preſs, formed with thick oak planks, which croſs the beams *b, b*. Theſe planks muſt be ſufficiently ſtrong to reſiſt the preſſure.

Fig. 2, elevation of the preſs, longitudinally.

e, e, iron cramps, faſtened with pins and ſcrews, and intended to combine the uprights with the foot of the preſs.

f f, a lever, by which the preſſure is effected.

g, a moveable pin, with a ring at the extremity, for the convenience of drawing it out; it ſerves as the centre of rotation of the lever. The uprights *c, c*, are perforated at certain diſtances, for the purpoſe of changing the poſition of this pin, as neceſſity may require.

h, a flat iron bar, cut on one ſide like a ſaw; the extremity is joined to a board or plate of metal, beneath which is placed a thick plank *k*, which is laid upon the goods.

l, an iron trigger, turning on the pin *m* (marked by a dotted circle) fixed in the lever *f f*. This trigger is preſſed into the indentures of the ſaw by a ſpring *n*, that makes it catch.

That the metal plate may not be raiſed by the elaſticity of the materials expoſed to the preſſure of the machine, the beam *j j* is provided with a ſimilar trigger *o*, turning on a pin *p*, which is made to catch by means of the ſpring *q*. This trigger prevents the ſaw-bar from going back when the lever has made it deſcend a few notches.

It is evident that the manner of working this preſs conſiſts in the very ſimple operation of bearing upon the extremity of the lever, and in changing, from time to time, the moveable pin *g*, when its poſition is ſome-

what higher than horizontal. In preſſing very elaſtic articles, as wool, &c. it will be proper to ſuffer the lever to remain ſtationary for ſome time. It is unneceſſary to obſerve, that the bales or packages muſt firſt be placed properly, together with the cords with which they are to be tied. When the article has been ſufficiently preſſed the lever is lifted up at *r*, and held in that poſition, while an iron pin *s* is paſſed through the holes of the uprights on the ſide oppoſite to the moveable pin *g*. To diſengage the triggers, draw the cords *z z* and *w w*, which are carried over two ſmall pullies; one of them, *x*, is placed beneath the croſs-beam, and the other near *s*, under the lever. Their ends are faſtened to two ſmall ſtaples, joined to the triggers *l*, *o*, and their ſprings *n*, *q*; theſe cords are tied to the moveable pin, while the plate is taken away, and the operation performed. But as theſe triggers or catches would not keep the flat plate and the ſaw-bar at a proper height, a flat bolt *t* is fixed behind the bar, provided with a ſmall ſpring, which drives it into holes, made at proper diſtances in the back of the bar. A ſmall cord *u*, carried through a ſtaple *y*, and faſtened to the head of the bolt *v*, ſerves to draw it out at pleaſure when a preſſure is required. Thus the mere alteration of this bolt is ſufficient to keep the ſaw and the plate at the proper height when the lever is to be lifted up by the manœuvre juſt deſcribed.

Fig. 3, elevation of the machine from behind; where may be ſeen the manner of fixing the cramps which join the uprights and the ſleepers, and likewiſe the diſpoſition of the lever and its pin: the ſame letters correſpond to the ſame parts in all the figures. For the preſſure of barrels of flour, herrings, &c. it is neceſſary to have a ſtrong round piece of wood, nearly the diameter of the barrel, which is placed above the head, and underneath the flat plate: this diſpoſition facilitates the hooping when the head is preſſed down to the notches.

The mortiſe made in the lever, for the paſſage of the ſaw, ſhould be wider toward the top and bottom, to facilitate the movement of the lever, and always in the direction of a radius diverging from its centre of motion. This mortiſe might even be provided, in caſe of neceſſity, with an iron cramp, or plate, to ſtrengthen the lever: the teeth of the ſaw ſhould not be cut with an angle too acute, that the catch may take better hold. It would not be amiſs to ſecure the lever round the moveable pin with an iron cramp, to prevent its ſplitting.

THOUGHTS ON THE FORMATION OF RIVERS.

[By M. Hauy, Profeſſor of Natural Philoſophy in the Normal Schools in France.]

EVAPORATION has furniſhed the true explanation of a fact, which had, for a long time, embarraſſed the ſpeculations of natural philoſophers. Rivers and ſtreams have been always obſerved to flow continually from their ſources to the ſea, and yet theſe ſources are never dried up. In the ſame manner, the ſea has uniformly received the tributes of thoſe different waters, and yet is never known to ſwell beyond its eſtabliſhed boundaries. From the operation of theſe circumſtances, philoſophers concluded that all waters muſt neceſſarily have returned to their ſources from the ſea, and that nature muſt have opened an uninterrupted communication between the ocean, and its tributary ſtreams and fountains. But where were the avenues and inlets for this mutual communication? Where were the conduits that conveyed the water of the ſea to the ſources of the rivers, and by what means did they loſe their ſaltneſs in this myſterious paſſage? That was the difficult point to be ſettled, and in order to come to a ſolution of it,

recourſe was had to different hypotheſes, which are more ſpecious than ſolid. Some adopted the opinion of Deſcartes, and imagined that the waters of the ſea, by paſſing through ſome ſubterraneous canals, arrived at immenſe reſervoirs or caverns, which are ſituate under the baſes of mountains; they then were formed into vapour by means of the heat that prevails in ſubterraneous places, and being diveſted of their ſaline particles, they roſe to the higher deciſions of the cavities, were there condenſed by cold, and afterward flowed to the ſources of rivers and running waters. Thus in the opinion of theſe philoſophers a real diſtillation took place ſimilar to that which is performed in the laboratories of the chymiſts. According to others, the waters of the ſea being impelled by the flux, found their way into the earth by a multitude of fiſſures, in which they underwent a ſort of filtration that carried off their ſaline particles. Canals of this deſcription, the ramifications of which extended on every ſide, conducted the waters to the places in which they formed ſprings and ſources by their reunion. When theſe theories were examined by the principles of ſound philoſophy, it was perceived, that to introduce into nature the uſe of alembics and filters, was to furniſh her with the means of our art, and compel her to adopt them, who is ſo often the inimicable model of our operations. Conjectures were at length formed, that no other origin was to be aſſigned to fountains, than what proceeded from rain only, and thus it is reaſon and obſervation preſent us with the following concluſions.

Water riſes from every part of our globe into the atmoſphere by means of evaporation. The ſea water depoſes its ſalt, in proportion as it yields to the attraction of the air; and a part of the dews, and the rains which are produced from theſe waters, fall on the tops of the mountains. Theſe eminences ſeem to act by affinity on the clouds, and to fix and condenſe them in that ſituation. It has been obſerved that a cloud, upon meeting the top of a mountain in its paſſage, has diſappeared in proportion as its different parts came in contact with the mountain. The water with which it is impregnated then finds its way into the ſurrounding ground, until it meets with an impervious bed, and from thence it meanders toward the declivity, and the foot of the mountain, where the bed that ultimately receives it appears without any further obſtacle. On the Primitive mountains, the water flows on the rocks, of which theſe mighty maſſes are compounded. The ſecondary mountains, being of a ſofter and more ſpungy nature, let the waters penetrate to a greater depth, where they ſtop their courſe by means of beds of clay, the declivities of which direct the courſe of the ſtreams that flow from them. It is in the interſtices of the neighbouring beds that the original ſprings reſide. The waters that do not meander on the ſurface, continue to flow in the boſom of the earth, where man endeavours to find them by opening wells, which he digs near his habitation. But perhaps it is too much to be conceded to evaporation, to ſuppoſe that it alone can furniſh that immenſe quantity of water which is neceſſary to ſupport ſo many ſources, eſpecially when we conſider the vaſt quantity that is loſt from rivers and ſtreams, that ſerves for the drink of animals, or is abſorbed by vegetables and plants. Mariotte, in his Treatiſe on the Motion of Waters, has diſcuſſed this queſtion, with his uſual accuracy, by comparing the quantity of rain water that falls in Paris, and its neighbourhood, during the ſpace of a year, with that which paſſes in the ſame time under the *Pont National*, and the reſult of his obſervations and calculations is, that the quantity of water that falls, ſo far exceeds the quantity ſufficient to ſupply the rivers, and to fill the ponds, that we muſt ſuppoſe the remainder to be employed with a pro-

fuſion that might be called exceſſive, for the purpoſes of vegetation, and other neceſſary abſorptions. The ſolution of this difficulty ſeems to furniſh a new objection, that cannot be eaſily obviated.

The explanation that we have adopted ſeems to bring back nature to its uſual ſimplicity and facility of means. The atmoſpheric air, by its ſimple action, attracts inceſſantly toward the waters that overſpread the ſurface of the globe, and after having ſerved as a vehicle for them, it precipitates them in different parts, and reſtores them to their primitive places, to the meadows, and the plains which they refreſh, to the ſources of rivers, which they nouriſh and ſupply, and to the ocean, whoſe leſſes they repair. The region in which the different phenomena produced by evaporation take place, does not extend to a great height in the atmoſphere. According to Mulchenbrock, the higheſt clouds very ſeldom exceed the ſummits of the higheſt mountains. Experiments have been made with a view to aſcertain the height of the atmoſphere itſelf; an attainment which might be eaſily acquired, were the denſity of the air the ſame in every place as it is on the ſurface of the earth. It would be ſufficient in that caſe to ſettle the proportion between the denſities of mercury, and of air, or between their ſpecific weight, and to multiply this proportion by twenty-eight inches, from which might be produced a diſtance of about two leagues for the height which is required to be found. But this determination is very far from the truth, on account of the diminution which the denſity of the air undergoes, in proportion as it is removed from the earth. Lahire has tried to determine the height of the atmoſphere from the duration of twilight. It is known, that we begin to perceive the rays of the ſun when that luminary is ſtill eighteen degrees below the horizon. The ſame rays do not penetrate at that time to a ſpectator to whom the ſaid horizon belongs, until they are refracted through the atmoſphere, and afterward reflected on its concavity, from which they take their direction toward the ſpectator. There is therefore a certain height allotted to the atmoſphere, in order that the reflection produced by the twilight ſhall begin when the ſun is eighteen degrees below the horizon, and by calculating that diſtance, Lahire diſcovered it to be about ſixteen leagues. But from this calculation it is only evident, that at the diſtance of eighteen leagues the effect of the atmoſphere, in reflecting light, is ſtill perceptible, ſo that we are only certain that the atmoſphere extends at leaſt ſo far, without being able to aſſign its ultimate boundaries.

Curious FACT *illuſtrative of the* FORCE *of* EARLY IMPRESSIONS.

[From M. Volney's Lectures on Hiſtory, delivered in the Normal Schools in France.]

IT is incumbent on the enlightened inſtructors of the French nation to weigh maturely the conſequences of the tranſactions that have lately taken place in our country. If the preſent generation, which has been brought up in a ſtate of gentleneſs and humanity, and which in its early days had no object of attention, except the uſual playthings of infancy; if this generation, with impreſſions ſo favourable, has ſuddenly plunged into the moſt ferocious ſanguinary exceſſes, what have we to expect from the younger branches, that have been nurtured in rapine and carnage, and have viewed, as matters of amuſement, the horrors that have lately paſt before our eyes? Were not a period happily put to theſe atrocities, we might expect a revival of the ſtrange effects of the phrenzy and madneſs which the doctrine of Odin formerly produced in Europe, and of which,

in the tenth century, the Daniſh School of the governor of Jomſbourg preſented an inſtance, that deſerves to be reported. I produce it from one of the beſt works of the preſent century, the Hiſtory of Denmark, written by profeſſor Mallet. After having mentioned in his introduction to the fourth book, the paſſion that the Scandinavians, as well as every other Celtic nation felt for war, after explaining the cauſes of it in their laws, education and religion, he relates the follow fact.

Hiſtory informs us, that Harald, king of Denmark, who lived in the middle of the tenth century, had founded, on the coaſt of Pomerania, a city called Julin, or Jomſbourg, and had ſent thither a colony of young Danes, whom he placed under the care of a perſon called Palnatocko, whom he appointed governor of the ſettlement. This new Lycurgus formed the colony into a ſecond Sparta; the aim of every cuſtom and inſtitution was to form ſoldiers, and it was ſtrictly forbidden to pronounce the word, *fear*, in their converſation, even ſhould the moſt imminent danger threaten their exiſtence. A citizen of Julin was taught never to yield to numbers, however great, but to fight with intrepidity, and without thinking of flight, with ſuperior multitudes, nor ſhould the idea of inſtant death be any excuſe or plea for abandoning his poſt before the enemy. It appears, from the reſult, that this legiſlator accompliſhed his object, and ſucceeded in extinguiſhing, in the breaſts of his followers, every veſtige of that deep and natural ſentiment that makes us ſhudder at our own deſtruction:—nothing can be a more deciſive proof of his ſucceſs, than a fact in their hiſtory, which from its ſingularity deſerves to be publiſhed to the world. Some of them having made an irruption into the territories of a powerful Norwegian prince, who was named Haquin, were overpowered after an obſtinate reſiſtance; the moſt diſtinguiſhed were made priſoners, and the conquerors condemned them to death, according to the cuſtom of thoſe times. This intelligence, inſtead of diſmaying them, was conſidered as a matter of triumph and exultation: the firſt who was called on to ſuffer, ſaid, without any charge of countenance, or the leaſt ſymptom of fear: *why ſhould I not meet with the ſame fate as my father; he died, and I ſhall do the ſame.* A warrior called Torchill, who cut their heads off, aſked the ſecond what he thought of death, and the latter replied, that he was too mindful of the laws of Julin to utter any word that ſhould teſtify fear. To a ſimilar queſtion, the third replied, that he was happy to die in ſo glorious a manner, and that he preferred death to a life of infamy, ſuch as Torchill's was. The fourth made a reply more circumſtantial and ſingular: I ſuffer death, ſaid he, with cheerfulneſs and reſolution, and the preſent moment is a joyful one for me; I only requeſt you, added he, addreſſing himſelf to Torchill, to cut off my head in the quickeſt manner poſſible, for it is a queſtion that we have often diſcuſſed together at Julin, whether one has any feeling or ſentiment after the head is cut off: in order to make the diſcovery, I ſhall hold this knife in my hand, and if, after decapitation, I move it toward you, it will be a ſign that I have not loſt every ſenſe of feeling; if I let it fall, that will be a proof of the contrary: make haſte then, and decide the queſtion. Torchill, adds the hiſtorian, quickly performed the operation, and the knife fell to the ground. The fifth diſplayed the ſame tranquillity, and died, inſulting his enemies. The ſixth, requeſted Torchill to ſtrike at his face: 'I ſhall hold myſelf immoveable,' ſaid he, 'and you may obſerve, if I even wink; we have been accuſtomed at Julin not to make the ſlighteſt motion expreſſive of alarm, when we meet the ſtroke of death, and we have often practiſed ourſelves in that manner.' He died, keeping his promiſe, in the preſence of all the ſpectators.

The ſeventh, according to the hiſtorian, was a youth of great beauty, in the flower of his age; his long fair hair reſembled ſilk, and floated in curls on his ſhoulders. Torchill aſked him, if he dreaded death, and he replied; I willingly ſubmit to death, ſince I have fulfilled the grand duty of life, and have ſeen every one periſh for whom I would with to live; the only requeſt I make, is that no ſlave may be permitted to touch my hair, and that my blood ſhall ſtain it, when I fall beneath your hands.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE PHYSIOGNOMY OF ANIMALS.

[By M. Dauberton, Profeſſor of Natural Hiſtory in the Normal Schools in France.]

THE brute creation, as well as men, have a peculiar phyſiognomy, that is to ſay, when we compare the outlines of their faces with the features of men, we perceive a ſort of faint reſemblance between them. However irregular this reſemblance may be, it is ſufficient to remind us, when we look at animals, of the ideas of acuteneſs or ſtupidity, of mildneſs, or ferocity, &c. which ariſe in our minds from a view of the countenances of men. The features which vary moſt among animals, are thoſe that depend on the length of the jaws, of the bones, of the noſe, and the diſtance between the eyes; the ſame features make a marked diſtinction in the phyſiognomies of men, and it has been aſſerted that every man has a particular reſemblance to ſome animal, the temper and turn of which bear equal ſigns of ſimilarity to his own. Such chimerical notions are ſo abſurd, that no concluſion ſhould be drawn from them, unleſs we ſuppoſe that independently of the likeneſs that ſubſiſts in the faces of men and animals, there is likewiſe a kind of conformity between the principal outlines of their phyſiognomy; a conformity merely external, which proves nothing with reſpect to animals, except the exiſtence of paſſions produced by their inſtinct and conformation, paſſions that may be compared with thoſe that ariſe from the animal part of man. The phyſiognomy of animals, taken in this ſenſe, is very difficult to be expreſſed with accuracy by painters; it requires the greateſt taſte and delicacy in the artiſt, and accordingly we find that the greater number of painters and deſigners can trace with exactneſs the features of a man or animal, though at the ſame time they fail in catching the expreſſion and character of the countenance. There is leſs difficulty in landſcapes, or general repreſentations of animals; the paſſions that are to be exhibited in them are clear and evident, and for this reaſon painters have a great advantage, when their ſubject is animals in the chace, or fighting with each other. It is from the great maſters only we can expect ſingle repreſentations of them, as they ſhould be conſidered when deſcribed in a ſtate of ſtillneſs and repoſe. But the extraordinary merit of ſuch pieces is loſt on the generality of connoiſſeurs, becauſe they never obſerved nature with attention, nor remarked the expreſſive aſpects of animals, ſuch as the ſagacity of the fox, the timidity of the fawn, the ſtupidity of the hog, &c. It muſt be acknowledged, that we are conſiderably more ſtruck with a piece of painting that repreſents the fierceneſs of the bull, when he defends himſelf againſt the obſtinate attacks of the maſtiff, or the ſavage fury of the wild boar, when he is wounded by the dogs. Nevertheleſs, the air of fierceneſs in the bull, and of fury in the boar, are expreſſions of a forced and violent ſtate, and very different from that ſtate of repoſe in which the bull appears to us a heavy animal, and the wild boar as a ſtupid ſenſeleſs creature. A picture repreſenting them in the latter ſtate would be little valued, though it is ſo neceſſary to a

thorough knowledge of the character of theſe animals: in the ſame manner, the deſcription of an animal ſeen in a ſtate of repoſe will be intereſting only to the obſervers of nature, who wiſh to inveſtigate her moſt ſecret receſſes, becauſe ſuch a deſcription may be conſidered as almoſt inſeparable from a kind of dryneſs of detail, which never fails to diſpleaſe thoſe who ſeek ſolely for pleaſure and amuſement, and who neglect and undervalue inſtruction and improvement. It is for this reaſon, that pictures with bright colouring pleaſe the generality of the world, and are even much ſought after by the ſtudents of natural hiſtory; becauſe they furniſh a kind of conſolation to them, when they cannot procure miniatures, which are very dear, when compared with painting of the former deſcription. Every miniature, let the ſubject be ſtill the ſame, is done after nature, and according to the rules of art, by artiſts who underſtand the nature of ſhade and colours. On the contrary, there is only one large painting executed by an artiſt of merit, which ſerves as a model for all the copies that are made after it, and theſe copies muſt not be expected to be laboured with the ſame care as the original, becauſe the price is ſo much inferior. Such pieces, however, do not deſerve the attention of the admirers of natural hiſtory, but they pleaſe generally on account of the glare and brilliancy of their colouring.

Account *of General* Macdowal's Introduction *to the* Court *of* Candy, *in* 1800.

[From Captain Percival's 'Account of the Iſle of Ceylon.']

GOVERNOR North having determined on ſending an embaſſy to the king of Candy, general Macdowal, the commander in chief of the forces on the iſland, was appointed to undertake the commiſſion. Previous to the departure of the embaſſy from Columbo, the governor ſent his private ſecretary, Mr. Boyd, to the borders of our territory at Sittivacca, there to meet the Adigar and other miniſters of his Candian majeſty, in order to make with them the neceſſary arrangements for its paſſage through the country, and its reception at court.

This object being effected, the general, his ſtaff, and ſuite, with a detachment from the garriſon, took their departure from Columbo, on the 10th of March; and after experiencing many difficulties from bad and hilly roads, thick jungles, exceſſive heat by day, heavy fogs and dews at night, with rain, thunder, and lightning, arrived at Ganaroa, a high mountain near Candy, on the 8th of April.

The road here was very ſteep, being up two very high hills. The country ſeemed more cultivated than any we had yet traverſed. The air was more ſerene and cool, particularly at night; there was leſs of the noxious fogs and damps than is uſually experienced in the lower parts of the country. At the foot of the mountain where the eſcort now halted, lies a beautiful valley watered by the Malivagonga. The view from Ganaroa is extremely grand, and takes in a vaſt range of hills, covered with thick woods and jungle, and interſected with valleys preſenting here and there ſome fertile ſpots cultivated by the Candians. The ruins of an old fort and a temple lie cloſe to the ſpot where the troops reſted.

On the 10th, the troops removed to a ſpot near the Malivagonga, and encamped oppoſite the hill on which Candy is ſituate. A large body of Candians were poſted on the other ſide of the river in view of the general's encampment. No intercourſe was allowed to be carried on between them and our people; nor any of the

eſcort allowed to quit the camp or examine the country in the neighbourhood. The interview and correſpondence between the Adigar and the general were all conducted with the utmoſt ſolemnity, and with all thoſe punctilious ceremonies which according to their ideas are matters of the higheſt importance.

The attendants, and indeed the whole of the natives, ſeemed to be actuated by the ſame myſterious taciturnity; ſo that little information was to be collected from them about the king or his politics.

The general was now arrived at that place where it was determined he ſhould reſide while he tranſacted the buſineſs of his embaſſy. It might now ſeem that he had overcome the chief difficulties that lay in his way; and that the fatigues of his tedious march would have been compenſated by a frank reception and ready admittance into the royal preſence. But it was the ſtudy of the Candians to impreſs the ambaſſador with the higheſt ideas of their dignity, and their condeſcenſion in receiving overtures from an European government. With this view, ſo many ceremonies attended each introduction into the royal preſence, that little buſineſs could be tranſacted; and ſuch a ſpace was allowed to elapſe between each interview, that the general was only admitted to three during his ſtay here, which was from the 10th of April to the 3d of May.

But previous to any interview, it was found no eaſy matter to adjuſt the ceremonies of introduction. It had been cuſtomary for the kings of Candy to demand proſtration, and ſeveral other degrading tokens of ſubmiſſion from the ambaſſadors introduced to them. The Dutch ambaſſadors had always ſubmitted to be introduced into the capital blindfold, and to proſtrate themſelves before the monarch. In a former war, when Trincomale was taken by us from the Dutch, propoſals were ſent to the king to aſſiſt him in expelling his enemies out of the iſland, and to form a treaty of alliance with him. After the envoy entruſted with this buſineſs had arrived at Candy, the king would not receive him ſtanding; and the envoy, not having inſtructions how to act in ſuch a caſe, declined the interview till he could hear from Madras; by which means ſo much time elapſed, that the object of the embaſſy was by intervening circumſtances entirely defeated, and the envoy returned without being preſented. Even after the Britiſh had ſhown their power by the capture of Columbo and the expulſion of the Dutch, the Candian monarch would not recede from his lofty pretenſions; and Mr. Andrews, the Britiſh Eaſt India company's chief civil ſervant, who was ſent upon a miſſion to Candy ſhortly after we had taken poſſeſſion of the iſland, was obliged to kneel on being admitted to the royal preſence. Nay, to ſuch an extravagant pitch do the natives carry their ideas of the indiſpenſable nature of this royal prerogative, that when Trincomale was in the laſt war taken by our troops under general Stewart, and when the king was in conſequence prevailed upon to ſend ambaſſadors to Madras, theſe perſons very modeſtly deſired lord Hobart to proſtrate himſelf before them, and to receive the king's letter on his knees. This requeſt, however, his lordſhip declined to comply with; but returned for anſwer, that as they were ſo much in the habit of kneeling, and ſo fond of proſtration, a cuſtom which his countrymen never adopted, their beſt plan to prevent the omiſſion of this eſſential ceremony, would be to proſtrate themſelves before him who held the ſupreme authority there: and this alternative, after they found his lordſhip would not ſubmit to the other, they actually aſſented to.

General Macdowal, underſtanding that this ceremony was expected at his introduction, previouſly informed his majeſty, by means of the Adigar, that he could not on any account ſub-

mit to it. The king made many objections to receiving him into his preſence, unleſs he would conſent firſt to proſtrate himſelf and then to remain kneeling during the royal audience. The general, however, poſitively refuſed compliance, and informed the miniſter that his ſovereign acknowledged the ſuperiority of no potentate upon earth; and that ſooner than degrade his ſovereign in the perſon of his repreſentative, he would return to Columbo without being preſented. The king, not daring to come to an open breach with us, upon this waved his prerogative; but in order to reconcile this derogation from his dignity to his own feelings, he informed the general that it was his royal will to diſpenſe in his caſe with the uſual ceremonies required of ambaſſadors at their introduction, as the general came from his brother the king of Great Britain, whoſe great power and ſtrength he acknowledged to be far above that of the Dutch or the Eaſt-India company.

This important matter having been adjuſted in this manner, and the time appointed for the firſt audience being come, the Adigar, with a numerous attendance, lighted by a great blaze of torches (for audience is always given here by night) came to the edge of the river to conduct the general to the royal preſence. The general on his part croſſed the river in the boats which were in readineſs, attended by his ſtaff and the gentlemen belonging to the embaſſy, with an eſcort conſiſting of a ſubaltern and fifty ſepoys. He was then conducted by the Adigar about a mile and a half to the king's palace. The road thither was up a ſteep hill, with narrow crooked paths. The capital was ſurrounded by thick thorny hedges, with gates of the ſame, called by the natives *caravetties*. The caravetty neareſt Candy has a rampart and breaſt work, on which ſome of their artillery was occaſionally mounted. The reſiſtance which it could make to the approach of a regular army is, however, very trifling: Candy is indebted for its principal fortifications to nature.

The way up to the city was very fatiguing, and the eſcort was not a little incommoded by the crowd of natives who eagerly preſſed to gaze at them. This circumſtance and the glare of the torches prevented the general's retinue from having an accurate view of the city. The embaſſy on entering it paſſed through one long broad ſtreet to the palace. The houſes, though low huts of themſelves, appeared greatly elevated from being built upon high banks on each ſide of the ſtreet, which forms a kind of area below. At the further end of this ſtreet is a high wall encloſing the gardens which belong to the palace. After a ſhort turn here to the left, the palace appeared ſtanding on the right. In front of it was a flight of ſtone ſteps, and a viranda or balcony, in which a number of the king's guards and ſeveral of the chief men in waiting were ſtationed. After paſſing this, and deſcending by another flight of ſteps, a large ſquare ſurrounded by a high wall afforded a ſtation for ſome more of the guards. At the oppoſite ſide ſtood a large arched gateway, leading into an inner court where the king and his principal officers of ſtate have their reſidence. In this inner diviſion the king kept his own body guards, who were compoſed of Malays and Malabars. Theſe troops are armed with ſwords, ſpears, and ſhields; and on them the king ſeems to place his chief dependence in the event of any ſudden commotion or alarm.

On the right hand of this inner court ſtood an open arch, through which was the entrance to the hall of audience. This ſtate room was a long viranda with alternate arches and pillars along its ſides. From this ſtructure, as well as from the appearance of the roof and ceiling, it bore a conſiderable reſemblance to the aiſle of a church. The pillars and arches were adorned with muſlin flowers, and ornaments made of the plantain leaf,

which had a very pretty effect. At the further end of the hall, and under one of the larger arches, was placed a kind of platform or throne, covered with a carpet, and ſurrounded with ſteps. Here the king ſat in ſtate. A ſmall partition raiſed in front concealed his feet and the lower part of his body from view. Below the arches on each ſide of the hall, the courtiers were ſeen, ſome proſtrate, others ſitting in ſilence and croſs legged like a parcel of taylors on a ſhop-board. The general was led up with much ceremony and gravity by the Adigar, and the next chief officer preſent, and placed along with the Adigar on the uppermoſt ſtep of the throne.

Although the reſt of the hall was well lighted, that part where the king ſat was contrived to be made more obſcure than the reſt, with a view of impreſſing a greater awe on thoſe who approached him. He was in appearance a young man, very black with a light beard. He was by no means ſo portly or well-looking as the Adigar and ſeveral other of the officers around him. He was dreſſed in a robe of very fine muſlin embroidered with gold, fitted cloſe at the breaſt with ſeveral folds drawn round the waiſt, and flowing down from thence like a lady's gown. His arms were bare from the elbows downward. On his fingers he wore a number of very broad rings ſet with precious ſtones of different ſorts, while a number of gold chains were ſuſpended round his neck over a ſtiff frilled piece of muſlin reſembling a queen Eliſabeth's ruff. His head was covered with a turban of muſlin ſpangled with gold, and ſurmounted by a crown of gold, an ornament by which he is diſtinguiſhed from all the other Aſiatic princes, who are prohibited by their religion from wearing this badge of royalty, and whoſe ornaments, when they uſe any, conſiſt ſimply of a ſprig or feather of precious ſtones. His waiſt was encircled with a rich ſaſh, to which was ſuſpended a ſhort curved dagger or ſabre, the handle richly ornamented, and the ſcabbard of gold filagree-work. In appearance his majeſty much reſembled the figures we are accuſtomed to ſee of king Henry VIII. The Adigar, from his ſuperior ſize, might indeed be ſaid to do ſo ſtill more: very little difference in dreſs was diſcernible between him and his ſovereign, except that the miniſter did not carry a crown; although his turban alſo was ſurmounted by ſomething like a ducal coronet.

After general Macdowal had been preſented in form to his majeſty, and a numerous ſtring of ceremonies had been gone through, the king proceeded to inquire about the health of his Britannic majeſty, and the ſtate of our affairs; to all which queſtions the general returned ſuch anſwers as propriety dictated. The converſation was carried on with the moſt profound gravity and reſerve. Even the moſt trifling circumſtances were mentioned in whiſpers, with as much ceremony and importance as if the fate of kingdoms depended upon them. The king directed his ſpeech to the Adigar, who ſtood on the ſtep below the throne, and who repeated his majeſty's words to the Maha Moodelier, who had come up with the embaſſy as Cingleſe interpreter. The latter in his turn gave it in Portugueſe to monſieur Joinville, who had alſo been ſent up by governor North to interpret from that language, and who repeated it in French to general Macdowal. Thus the converſation was carried on by five different perſons, and in three different languages; the general's anſwers returning by the ſame channel which had conveyed his majeſty's queſtions.

The tedious length to which ſuch a conference muſt have been protracted, may be eaſily conceived, and though it laſted near three hours, the firſt interview was entirely occupied with complimentary matters. During the conference, roſe-water was frequently ſprinkled around from curiouſly wrought veſſels of gold; and perfumes were handed about on ſalvers

of gold and ſilver fillagree-work. The oppreſſive heat of the room however, joined to the powerful exhalations of the ſcented oils burned in the lamps, and the rank ſmell of cocoa-nut oil with which the natives preſent were univerſally anointed, overcame the effects of all theſe precautions, and almoſt ſtifled the European gentlemen who were allowed to remain at one end of the hall where the general's guard was ſtationed. During the audience, the rain poured down in torrents without intermiſſion; and continued to do ſo until the general was on his march back to the camp, where he arrived about five in the morning, quite exhauſted with fatigue.

After this audience, ſome days were permitted to elapſe before another could be obtained; as it is a ſtanding maxim with the Candians never to hurry forward affairs, or to betray any ſymptom of anxiety for their being brought to a concluſion. I am convinced that their adherence to this principle on the preſent occaſion coſt them no ſmall ſhare of uneaſineſs; as their ſuſpicions of us were too violent to allow their minds to enjoy any reſt while we continued in their country.

At the ſecond audience the general introduced the buſineſs of the embaſſy, and made thoſe demands which he was authoriſed to do on behalf of Great Britain. Concerning the nature of thoſe demands, and the anſwers returned to them, I do not conſider myſelf at liberty to give any ſtatement, as they were matters of private negociation. One circumſtance however was publicly talked of as having been laid before his Candian majeſty by the general on this occaſion. It was a requeſt made on the part of our government, that that prince would allow a road to be made and a communication to be opened from Trincomale to Columbo, through his territories, a little to the north of Candy. This would have been a matter of vaſt convenience and importance to our government, as hitherto the tapals or letter-bags had to be conveyed by a circuitous route along the ſea-coaſt by Manaar and Jafnapatam, and double the diſtance of that propoſed through the Candian territories. The king however would on no account accede to this propoſal; but expreſſed his decided averſion to any intercourſe or connexion exiſting between his ſubjects and the Europeans. At the ſame time, however, he expreſſed a deſire to live on amicable terms with the Britiſh, whoſe power he acknowledged to be far ſuperior to that of the Dutch. Whatever further tranſpired with regard to the objects of the embaſſy was too much the reſult of conjecture to be ſet down in an authentic narrative.

Between this audience and the next audience for the purpoſe of taking leave, ſeveral meſſages and converſations took place between general Macdowal and the Adigar on political topics. The greateſt precaution was employed by the Candians to prevent any intercourſe between thoſe of our eſcort, particularly the Malays and Malabars, and thoſe in the king's ſervice. Our ſoldiers who attended the general to the court were prevented by every poſſible means from converſing with the natives. In ſpite of theſe precautions, however, ſeveral pieces of information were procured which may be turned to advantage hereafter. Several Malays in the king's ſervice found an opportunity of expreſſing their ſorrow at not having it in their power to return to Columbo with their old companions. Moſt of thoſe Malays had been ſlaves to the Dutch, and had on account of ill treatment made their eſcape to the Candian territories. They would have gladly returned to their former maſters, and ſubmitted to any puniſhment for their deſertion, rather than live in continual apprehenſion from the caprices of a deſpotic and barbarous court.

At the audience for taking leave, the king put a gold chain round the general's neck, and preſented him with a ſword and an embroidered belt

and ſcabbard. He alſo gave him a ring ſet with different ſorts of precious ſtones, and an elephant. Theſe, even when added to the preſents ſent to governor North by the king, were of ſmall value in compariſon of thoſe his Candian majeſty received from our government. To the officers who accompanied the king were diſtributed a gold chain, a ring, and ſome tortoiſeſhells of little value; and the ſoldiers were merely preſented with a piece of coarſe cloth. Nor was the eſcort even ſupplied with proviſions while at the Candian court; a piece of hoſpitality which was expected, and which on former occaſions it had been uſual to confer. A ſmall quantity of rice and paddy of an inferior ſort, with a few ſweet-meats dealt with a very ſparing hand, were all the gifts which our troops derived from Candian hoſpitality.

The general, after taking his final leave of his majeſty, and having obtained orders for departure, commenced his route on the 2d of May, for the camp at Ruanelli, and arrived there on the 6th. Next day he ſet out with his ſtaff for Columbo, leaving directions with colonel Torrens to march the detachment back as ſoon as the eſcort he had carried up with him to Candy were ſufficiently refreſhed from their fatigues.

On the 10th of May, the whole detachment ſet off, and on the 14th, arrived at Columbo.

ACCOUNT *of a* SPANIARD *who can endure, without being incommoded, the greateſt* DEGREES *of* HEAT.

[By J. C. Delametherie.]

A NATIVE of Toledo, in Spain, about twenty-three years of age, who arrived lately at Paris, has made different experiments to ſhow that he is capable of enduring the greateſt degrees of heat without being incommoded. We ſhall here give an extract of thoſe made at the ſchool of medicine before ſeveral of the profeſſors, about three hundred of the pupils, and ſeveral other perſons.

Care was taken to examine him before, and it was found that his ſtate exhibited nothing different from that of a man in good health. His pulſe beat about 75 or 78 times a minute.

Experiment I. A veſſel containing oil heated to 85° of Réaumur being prepared, he opened his hand and applied the palm of it ſeveral times to the oil; he then waſhed his hands and face in the oil, and applied the ſoles of his feet to it. At the end of the experiment the heat of the oil was ſtill from 76 to 78 degrees.

Exp. II. A bar of iron from 18 to 20 inches in length and 2½ inches in breadth was brought to a cherry red heat at one of its extremities, and placed on bricks. The Spaniard placed the ſole of one of his feet on the red part: a portion of the oil which ſtill adhered to it immediately inflamed. He applied the ſole of the other foot in the like manner, and this he repeated ſeveral times.

Exp. III. The flat part of a large iron ſpatula eighteen inches in length was brought to a cherry red heat. The Spaniard thruſt out his tongue, applied it to the red part of the ſpatula, and repeated the ſame thing ſeveral times. Three glaſſes of pure water were then brought, into one of which a few drops of ſulphuric acid were put, and into another a pretty large quantity of marine ſalt: the third contained only water. The Spaniard was made to drink theſe three glaſsfulls, and was able to diſtinguiſh perfectly the ſavour of them.

Exp. IV. He took a lighted candle, and drew the flame of it ſeveral times over the poſterior part of his leg from the heel to the ham. He was examined after theſe trials, and no part of his ſkin appeared to be in the leaſt altered. The ſole of his foot

ſeemed to be ſmokey—which ought to be aſcribed to the carbon of the oil—but his pulſe beat from 130 to 140 times in a minute. It appears that ſince that time he placed himſelf in an oven heated to 70 degrees, and *remained in it ſome minutes.*

Dr. Blagden, a fellow of the Royal Society of London, ſupported a ſtill greater degree of heat. He heated an apartment till Fahrenheit's thermometer roſe to 260 degrees, entered it with his clothes on, and remained in it eight minutes. At laſt he was much oppreſſed. Several other perſons entered it alſo. His pulſe when he quitted the apartment beat 144 times in a minute.

In another experiment he entered, undreſſed, into the ſame apartment heated to 220 degrees of Fahrenheit, and remained in it twelve minutes without being incommoded.

In a third experiment, the chamber being heated to 210 degrees of Fahrenheit, he entered it along with ſeveral other perſons, and remained in it ſeveral minutes without being incommoded.

Some eggs and a beefſteak were placed in the ſame apartment on a pewter diſh; in twenty minutes the eggs were entirely hard, and in forty-ſeven the beefſteak was not only baked but almoſt dry.

On the NOURISHMENT *of* VEGETABLES. *By* Andrew Hunter, *M. D.*

[From the New Edition of his GEORGICAL ESSAYS.]

I LAY it down as a fundamental maxim, that all plants receive their principal nouriſhment from oily and mucilaginous particles incorporated with water, by means of an alkaline ſalt or abſorbent earth. Till oil is made miſcible, it is unable to enter the radical veſſels of vegetables; and, on that account, Providence has bountifully ſupplied all natural ſoils with chalky or other abſorbent particles. I ſay natural ſoils, for thoſe which have been aſſiſted by art are full of materials for that purpoſe; ſuch as lime, marl, ſoap-aſhes, and the volatile alkaline ſalt of putrid dunghills.

It may be aſked, whence do natural ſoils receive their oily particles? I anſwer, the air ſupplies them. During the ſummer months, the atmoſphere is full of putrid exhalations ariſing from the ſteam of dunghills, the perſpiration of animals, and ſmoke. Every ſhower brings down theſe putreſcent particles for the nouriſhment of plants. Of theſe, ſome fall into the ſea, where they probably ſerve for the nouriſhment of fuci, and other ſubmarine plants. They are, however, but ſeemingly loſt, as the fiſh taken from the ſea, and the weeds thrown upon the beach, reſtore them again under a different form. Thus Providence, with the moſt conſummate wiſdom, keeps up the neceſſary rotation of things, diſſolution and combination following each other in endleſs ſucceſſion.

When the putreſcent particles that are ſuſpended in the atmoſphere happen to fall upon a very ſandy ſoil, the ſolar heat exhales the moſt of them. Hence an additional reaſon for covering our light ſoils with herbage during the ſummer months.

On the contrary, when theſe particles fall upon ſtiff land, or ſuch as have been marled or limed, an intimate union is produced, too ſtrong for the ſolar heat to exhale.

It is obſerved, that lime mechanically binds a hot ſandy ſoil. We now ſee that it alſo fertilizes it; but the farmer muſt not preſume too much upon that quality.

The ingenious Mr. Tull, and others, contend that earth is the food of plants. If ſo, all ſoils equally tilled would prove equally prolific. The increaſed fertility of a well pulverized ſoil induced him to imagine that the plough could ſo minutely divide the

particles of earth, as to fit them for entering into the roots of plants.

An open ſoil, if not too light in its own nature, will always produce plentiful crops. It readily receives the air, rains, and dews into its boſom, and at the ſame time gives the roots of plants a free paſſage in queſt of food. This is the true reaſon why land well tilled is ſo remarkably fruitful.

Water is thought, by ſome, to be the food of vegetables, when in reality it is only the vehicle of nouriſhment. Water is an heterogeneous fluid, and is no where to be found pure. It always contains a ſolution of animal or vegetable ſubſtances. Theſe conſtitute the nouriſhment of plants, and the element in which they are minutely ſuſpended, acts only as a vehicle in guiding them through the fine veſſels of the vegetable body.

The hyacinth, and other bulbous roots, are known to perfect their flowers in pure water. Hence ſuperficial obſervers have drawn an argument in favour of water being the food of vegetables. But the truth is, the roots, ſtem, and flowers of ſuch plants, are nouriſhed by the mucilaginous juices of the bulb, diluted by the ſurrounding water. This mucilage is juſt ſufficient to perfect the flower—and no more. Such a bulb neither forms ſeeds, nor ſends forth off-ſets. At the end of the ſeaſon it appears weak, ſhrivelled, and exhauſted, and is rendered unfit to produce flowers the ſucceeding year. A root of the ſame kind, that has been fed by the oily and mucilaginous juices of the earth, eſſentially differs in ever particular. It has a plump appearance, is full of mucilage—with off-ſets upon its ſides.

All rich ſoils, in a ſtate of nature, are thought to contain oil and mucilage; and in thoſe lands which have been under the plough for ſome years, they are found in proportion to the quantity of putrid dung that has been laid upon them, making an allowance for the crops they have ſuſtained.

To ſet this matter in a clearer light, let us attend to the effects of manures of an oily nature, and we ſhall ſoon be ſatisfied that oil, however modified and diſtinguiſhed, is one of the chief things concerned in vegetation.

Rape-duſt, when laid upon land, is a ſpeedy and certain manure, though an expenſive one, and will generally anſwer beſt on a limeſtone land, or where the ſoil has been moderately limed.

This ſpecies of manure is much eſteemed by the farmer. It contains the food of plants ready prepared; but as it is not capable of looſening the ſoil by any fermentation, the lands upon which it is laid ought to be in excellent tilth. At preſent, that uſeful article of huſbandry is much diminiſhed in goodneſs, owing to the improved methods of extracting the oil from the rape. Heat and preſſure are employed in a double degree, and every other method is uſed to the prejudice of the farmer. Some perſons, however, are of opinion, that the ſevere extraction of the oil does not materially injure the rape-duſt.

Farmers that live in the neighbourhood of large towns uſe abundance of ſoot. It is an oily manure, but different from the former, containing alkaline ſalt in its own nature, calculated as well for opening the ſoil, as for rendering the oily parts miſcible with water.

It is obſerved that the dung of pigeons is a rich and haſty manure. Theſe animals feed chiefly upon grains and oily ſeeds; it muſt therefore be expected that their dung ſhould contain a large proportion of oil.

The dung of ſtable-kept horſes is alſo a ſtrong manure, and ſhould not be uſed until it has undergone the *putrid ferment*, in order to mix and aſſimilate its oily, watry, and ſaline parts. Beans, oats, and hay, contain much oil. The dung of horſes, that are kept upon green herbage, is of a weaker kind, containing much leſs oil. Swine's dung is of a ſaponaceous and oily nature, and perhaps

is the richeſt of the animal manures. When made into a compoſt, and applied with judgment, it is excellent both for arable and graſs lands. The dung of ſtall fed oxen, eſpecially if oil-cake make part of their food, is of a rich quality, and greatly preferable to that of cows and oxen ſupported by graſs only. A farmer, when he purchaſes dung, ſhould attend to all the circumſtances under which it is produced. One load of dung from a hunting ſtable, where much corn is uſed, is worth two loads produced by hay and green provender.

The dung of ruminant animals, as cows and ſheep, is preferable to that of horſes at graſs, owing to the quantity of animal juices mixed with their food in chewing. And here I beg leave to remark in general, that the fatter the animal, *cæteris paribus*, the richer the dung.

Human ordure is full of oil and a volatile alkaline ſalt. By itſelf it is too ſtrong a manure for any land; it ſhould therefore be made into a compoſt before it is uſed. The dung of carnivorous animals is plentifully ſtored with oil. Animals that feed upon ſeeds and grains come next, and after them follow thoſe which ſubſiſt upon graſs only.

To ſuit theſe different manures to their proper ſoils, requires the greateſt judgment of the farmer, as what may be proper for one ſoil may be highly detrimental to another.

In order to ſtrengthen my argument in favour of oil (phlogiſton) being the principal food of plants, I muſt beg leave to obſerve, that all vegetables, whoſe ſeeds are of an oily nature, are found to be remarkable impoveriſhers of the ſoil, as hemp, rape, and flax; for which reaſon, the beſt manures for lands, worn out by theſe crops, are ſuch as have a good deal of oil in their compoſition; but then they muſt be laid on with lime, chalk, marl, or ſoap aſhes, ſo as to render the oily particles miſcible with water.

The book of Nature may be diſplayed, to ſhow that oily particles conſtitute the nouriſhment of plants in their embryo ſtate; and, by a fair inference, we may ſuppoſe that ſomething of the ſame nature is continued to them as they advance in growth. The oily ſeeds, as rape, hemp, line, and turnip, conſiſt of two lobes, which, when ſpread upon the ſurface, form the ſeminal leaves. In them the whole oil of the ſeed is contained. The moiſture of the atmoſphere penetrates the cuticle of the leaves, and, mixing with the oil, conſtitutes an emulſion for the nouriſhment of the plant. The ſweetneſs of this balmy fluid invites the fly, againſt which no ſufficient remedy has, as yet, been diſcovered. The oleaginous liquor being conſumed, the ſeminal leaves decay, having performed the office of a mother to her tender infant. To perſons unacquainted with the analogy between plants and animals, this reflection will appear ſtrange. Nothing however is more demonſtrable.

Moſt of the leguminous and farinaceous plants keep their placenta, or ſeminal leaves, within the earth; in which ſituation they ſupply the tender germ with oily nutriment, until its roots are grown ſufficiently ſtrong to penetrate the ſoil. The curious reader will find this ſubject treated of at large in the third eſſay.

It is uſual to talk of the ſalts of the earth, but chemiſtry has not been able to diſcover any ſalts in land which has not been manured; though it is ſaid that oil may be readily obtained from every ſoil, the very ſandy ones excepted.

Marl, though a rich manure, has no ſalts. It is thought by ſome to contain a ſmall portion of oleaginous matter, and an abſorbent earth, of a nature ſimilar to limeſtone, with a large quantity of clay intermixed.

Lime mixed with clay comes neareſt to the nature of marl of any factitious body that we know of, and may be uſed as ſuch, where it can be had without much expenſe. By increaſing

the quantity of clay, it will make an excellent compoſt for a light ſandy ſoil; but to make the ground fertile, woollen rags, rotten dung, curriers' ſhavings, or any oily manure, ſhould be incorporated with it ſome time before it is laid on.

It is the opinion of ſome, that lime enriches the land it is laid upon, by means of ſupplying a ſalt fit for the nouriſhment of plants; but, by all the experiments that have been made upon lime, it is found to contain no kind of ſalt. Its operation, therefore, ſhould be conſidered in a different light. By the fermentation that it induces, the earth is opened and divided, and, by its abſorbent and alkaline quality, it unites the oily and watery parts of the ſoil. It alſo ſeems to have the property of collecting the acid of the air, forming with it a combination of great uſe in vegetation.

From viewing lime in this light, it is probable that it tends to rob the ſoil of its oily particles, and in time will render it barren, unleſs we take care to ſupport it with rotten dung, or other manures of an oily nature.

As light ſandy ſoils contain but a ſmall portion of oleaginous particles, we ſhould be extremely cautious not to overdo them with lime, unleſs we can at the ſame time aſſiſt them liberally with rotten dung, ſhavings of leather, woollen rags, ſhavings of horn, and other manures of an animal kind. Its great excellence, however, upon a ſandy ſoil, is by mechanically binding the looſe particles, and thereby preventing the liquid parts of the manure from eſcaping out of the reach of the radical fibres of the plants.

Upon clay the effect of lime is different; for, by means of the gentle fermentation that it produces, the unſubdued ſoil is opened and divided; the manures laid on readily come into contact with every part of it; and the fibres of the plants have full liberty to ſpread themſelves.

It is generally ſaid that lime anſwers better upon ſand than clay. This obſervation will undoubtedly hold good as long as the farmer continues to lime his clay lands in a ſcanty manner. Let him treble the quantity, and he will then be convinced that lime is better for clay than land. It may be juſtly anſwered, that the profits will not admit of the expenſe. I agree. But then it muſt be underſtood that it is the application, and not the nature of the lime, that ſhould be called in queſtion. Clay, well limed, will fall in water, and ferment with acids. Its very nature is changed.

Under ſuch agreeable circumſtances, the air, rains, and dews, are freely admitted, and the ſoil is enabled to retain the nouriſhment that each of them brings. In conſequence of a fermentation raiſed in the ſoil, the fixed air is ſet at liberty, and in that ſtate of activity it becomes an uſeful inſtrument in dividing the tenacious clay. However, let the farmer, who uſes much lime for his clay lands, be inſtructed to manure them well, otherwiſe the ſoil will bake, and become too hard to permit the roots of the plants to ſpread themſelves in ſearch of food.

It is the nature of lime to attract oils, and diſſolve vegetable bodies. Upon theſe principles we may account for the wonderful effects of lime in the improvement of black moor-land. Moor-earth conſiſts of diſſolved, and half-diſſolved, vegetable ſubſtances. It is full of oil.—Lime diſſolves the one, and aſſimilates the other.

Such lands, not originally worth ſixpence per acre, may be made, by paring, burning, and liming, to produce plentiful crops of turnips, which may be followed with oats, barley, or graſs ſeeds, according to the inclination of the owner.—Theſe obſervations, however, are rather foreign from the argument of the preſent eſſay, to which I ſhall now return.

To the univerſal principle, oil (phlogiſton), we muſt add another of

great efficacy, though very little underſtood; I mean the nitrous acid of the air.

That the air does contain the rudiments of nitre, is demonſtrable from the manner of making ſaltpetre in the different parts of the world. The air contains no ſuch ſalt as perfect nitre: it is a factitious ſalt, and is made by the nitrous acid falling upon a proper matrix. The makers of nitre form that matrix of the rubbiſh of old houſes, fat earth, and any fixed alkaline ſalt. The univerſal acid, as it is called, is attracted by theſe materials, and forms true nitre, which is rendered pure by means of cryſtalization, and in that form it is brought to us. In very hot countries, the natural earth forms a matrix for nitre, which makes the operation very ſhort.

It is obſerved, that nitre is moſt plentifully formed in winter, when the wind is northerly: hence we may underſtand the true reaſon why land is fertilized by being laid up in high ridges during the winter months. The good effects of that operation are wholly attributed to the mechanical action of the froſt upon the ground. Light ſoils, as well as the tough ones, may be expoſed in high ridges, but with ſome limitation, in order to imitate the mud walls in Germany, which are found, by experience, to collect conſiderable quantities of nitre during the winter.

After ſaying ſo much in praiſe of nitre, it will be expected that I ſhould produce ſome proofs of its efficacy, when uſed as a manure. I muſt confeſs that experiments do not give us any ſuch proofs. Perhaps too large a quantity has been uſed; or rather, it could not be reſtored to the earth with its particles ſo minutely divided, as when it remained united with the ſoil, by means of the chemiſtry of nature. I ſhall therefore conſider this nitrous acid, or, as ſome call it, the *acidum vagum*, in the light of a vivifying principle, with whoſe operation we are not yet fully acquainted.

I have already obſerved, that there ſubſiſts a ſtrong analogy between plants and animals. Oil and water ſeem to make up the nouriſhment of both. Earth enters very little into the compoſition of either. It is obſerved, that animals take in a great many earthy particles at the mouth, but they are ſoon diſcharged by urine and ſtool. Vegetables take in the ſmalleſt portion imaginable of earth; and the reaſon is, they have no way to diſcharge it.

It is highly probable, that the radical fibres of plants take up their nouriſhment from the earth, in the ſame manner that the lacteal veſſels abſorb the nutriment from the inteſtines; and as the oily and watery parts of our food are perfectly united into a milky liquor, by means of the ſpittle, pancreatic juice, and bile, before they enter the lacteal, we have all the reaſon imaginable to keep up the analogy, and ſuppoſe that the oleaginous and watery parts of the ſoil are alſo incorporated, previous to their being taken up by the abſorbent veſſels of the plant.

To form a perfect judgment of this, we muſt reflect that every ſoil, in a ſtate of nature, has in itſelf a quantity of abſorbent earth, ſufficient to incorporate its inherent oil and water; but when we load it with fat manures, it becomes eſſentially neceſſary to beſtow upon it, at the ſame time, ſomething to aſſimilate the parts. Lime, ſoap-aſhes, kelp, marl, and all the alkaline ſubſtances, perform that office.

In order to render this operation viſible to the ſenſes:—Diſſolve one drachm of Ruſſia potaſh in two ounces of water; then add two ſpoonfuls of oil. Shake the mixture, and it will inſtantly become an uniform maſs of a whitiſh colour, adapted, as I conceive, to all the purpoſes of vegetation.

This eaſy and familiar experiment is a juſt repreſentation of what happens after the operation of burn-baking, and conſequently may be conſidered as a confirmation of the

hypotheſis advanced. Let us attend to the proceſs.

The ſward being reduced to aſhes, a fixed alkaline ſalt is produced. The moiſture of the atmoſphere ſoon reduces that ſalt into a fluid ſtate, which, mixing with the ſoil, brings about an union of the oily and watery parts, in the manner demonſtrated by the experiment.

When the under ſtratum conſiſts of a rich vegetable mould, the effects of burn-baking will be laſting. But when the ſoil happens to be thin and poor, the firſt crop frequently ſuffers before it arrives at maturity.

The farmer, therefore, who is at the expence of paring and burning a thin ſoil, ſhould beſtow upon it a portion of rotten dung, or ſhambles manure, before the aſhes are ſpread, in order to ſupply the deficiency of oily particles; and he ſhould be very careful not to keep this kind of land too long under the plough.

In conſequence of this prudent management, the crop will be ſupported during its growth, and the land will be preſerved in health and vigour.

For ſuch weak lands, it is highly probable that the oil-compoſt deſcribed in the next eſſay, will be found the cheapeſt and moſt effectual manure.

Hitherto I have conſidered plants as nouriſhed by their roots. I ſhall now take a view of them as nouriſhed by their leaves. An attention to this part of the vegetable ſyſtem is eſſentially neceſſary to the rational farmer.

Vegetables that have a ſucculent leaf, ſuch as vetches, peaſe, beans, and buck-wheat, draw a great part of their nouriſhment from the air, and on that account impoveriſh the ſoil leſs than wheat, oats, barley, or rye, the leaves of which are of a firmer texture.

In this manner the vegetable creation renders the air pure by aſſimilating to itſelf thoſe putreſcent particles which, if not removed, would render the atmoſphere unfit for animal reſpiration. Some modern philoſophers have attempted to deſtroy this opinion, but they muſt bring ſtronger proofs than thoſe they have produced, before they can expect to tear from the human breaſt an idea ſo full of harmony.

Rape and hemp are oil-bearing plants, and, conſequently, impoveriſhers of the ſoil; but the former leſs ſo than the latter, owing to the greater ſucculency of its leaf.

The leaves of all kinds of grain are ſucculent for a time; during which period the plants take little from the earth; but as ſoon as the ear begins to be formed, they loſe their ſoftneſs, and diminiſh in their attractive power.

The radical fibres are then more vigorouſly employed in extracting the oily particles of the earth, for the nouriſhment of the ſeed. Such, I apprehend, is the courſe of nature.

DESCRIPTION OF CAPE TOWN.

[From Walks and Sketches, at the Cape of Good Hope, &c. by R. Semple.]

CAPE-TOWN is neat and regularly built, the ſtreets croſſing each other at right angles, and the houſes being moſtly all white. It lies at the foot of three hills, which ſurround and protect it on every ſide, except toward the bay, upon the edge of which it begins, with cluſters of low and poor fiſhermen's huts, which ſtand cloſe to the water. The Lion Hill is a ridge of high ground, running from NNW, to SSE, and riſing at the ſouth-eaſt end into a conical precipice called the Lion's head. It forms nearly a perpendicular with Table Mountain, to the weſt end of which it is joined by a ridge of ground of a gravelly nature. The Table and Devil Hills, though under two names, may, in effect, be conſidered as one, they forming one great maſs, and being only ſeparated by a cleft at the ſummit.

It is principally at the foot, and along the firſt ſlope, of the Lion Hill, that the town is built; Hottentot-ſquare being conſiderably up the aſcent, and the ſlope of the hill not being left till you arrive at the ſtreet which runs in a ſtraight line from the water-ſide to the gate of the company's garden, and forms in its courſe the weſtern ſide of the Grand Parade.

Though the outlines of the town be irregular, the body of it may be conſidered as forming, in its preſent ſtate, an oblong, meaſuring about 840 paces from the upper ſide of Hottentot-ſquare to the barracks, and 550 from the gate of the company's gardens to the water-ſide. The garden which now bounds part of the town toward Table Hill, is likely, in the courſe of time, to form the centre of Cape-Town; for, as ever ſince its foundation is has been going rapidly on increaſing in ſize, and is likely to increaſe ſtill more rapidly under its preſent poſſeſſors, it will doubtleſs, in time, ſpread to the roots, and even ſome way up the aſcent, of all the ſurrounding hills, which incloſing it, like an amphitheatre, on every ſide, it will form as ſingular and picturesque a ſpectacle as any city in the world.

The principal public buildings of Cape-Town are, the two churches, the ſtadt-houſe, the barracks, the lodge for the government ſlaves, and the priſon. There is a ſteeple to the principal church, which forms the only object that overtops the reſt; and is therefore conſpicuous in all views of the town. The church itſelf is neat, but in no wiſe remarkable either for its elegance or defects. Inſtead of pews, the body of the church is filled with chairs, and the pillars are adorned with the eſcutcheons and arms of ſuch men of eminent families as have died at the Cape, moſtly, if not all, in the ſervice of the company. Two wooden lions ſupport a neat pulpit, upon which is carved an anchor, emblematic at once of the hope of a Chriſtian and of the name of the colony. Theſe lions gape and grin in a moſt formidable manner, and exhibit their teeth in the true Dutch taſte; but the whole is not badly executed. The church is likewiſe furniſhed with a tolerable organ.

The Lutheran chapel ſtands at the upper end of Strand-ſtreet, at the northweſt entrance of the town; it is without a ſteeple, but is adorned externally with three or four chubby figures, which ſeem to have perched themſelves rather clumſily upon the roof. An oſtrich is carved out over the door, and in the interior of the church the figure of this bird is thrice repeated; once, where, with ſhort outſtretched wings, it forms the reading deſk of the clerk—upon the body of the pulpit—and, laſtly, above, upon the ſound-board. The pulpit is ſupported in front by two well carved Herculean figures, coloured to reſemble bronze; and the organ, which fronts it at the oppoſite end of the chapel, ſtands upon pillars, ſtained in imitation of marble. The general internal ſtructure of this chapel reſembles that of moſt of the country churches in England, being an oblong, divided by two rows of heavy arched pillars, running nearly the whole length of the building; the centre diviſion between the pillars forming the body of the church. Chairs are likewiſe uſed here inſtead of pews, a cuſtom which has probably ariſen from the ſcarcity of wood in this colony, when, at its firſt foundation, every man provided his own ſeat.

The ſtadthouſe is a clumſy building of red ſtone, in the market-ſquare, about the centre of the town. Here the burghers of the Cape aſſemble on particular occaſions, though it be now but ſeldom uſed. It is ornamented with pilaſters and a portico, which may be called the ſlave's portico; for here, when unemployed, eſpecially in rainy weather, or toward the cloſe of the ſummer evenings, they aſſemble together in groups, and talk ſlave philoſophy.

Upon the eaſt ſide of the town ſtand the barracks, a long white building with wings, capable of holding three thouſand men. It is in length about five hundred feet, and three hundred in depth, and, being full of windows and ſtanding detached, it cannot fail to ſtrike the eye of a ſtranger from ſhipboard: the Engliſh have ſurrounded it with a wall, and made ſome other improvements.

The lodge for the government ſlaves is a large, plain, oblong building, about eighty paces long and twenty broad, with an area in the centre. It ſtands between the church and the company's garden, and has nothing in its ſtructure worthy of notice, being deſtined ſolely for the habitation of the ſlaves belonging to the government, they having been formerly in the ſervice of the Dutch Eaſt India company.

The laſt public building which we ſhall notice is the Tronk, or priſon: it ſtands by the water ſide, and is at once the Bridewell, the Old Bailey, the Newgate, and the Doctor's Commons, of Cape-Town: here the trials of life and death are held; hither delinquent ſlaves are ſent to be corrected; and here priſoners are confined, and are led thence to the place of execution. Its only ornament is a ſmall turret with a bell, which ſeldom tolls but on the laſt of theſe melancholy occaſions. The office of the commiſſary of the court of marriages is likewiſe here, and to which every perſon muſt apply for a permiſſion previous to marrying; inſomuch, that whether a man be going to be married or to be hanged, he muſt firſt pay a viſit to the Tronk.

The company's garden is ſituate ſix hundred paces from the water ſide; cloſe by the entrance is the town guard-houſe, the architecture of which, and of the garden-gate, is in a purer taſte than that of any other public building in the Cape. A walk planted with elms and hedges of myrtle on each ſide, leads from one end of the garden to the other, and meaſures in length nearly one thouſand paces. The whole is divided, by rows of trees, into ſquare plots, between each of which is a ſhady walk. At the upper end of the garden, is a walled-in ſpot, where formerly the menagerie was kept, conſiſting of ſuch animals peculiar to this colony as are deemed rare in Europe, but there are at preſent none kept here, and the place of courſe, is in a neglected ſtate.

The garden forms the park of Cape-Town, being much frequented by the inhabitants, eſpecially in the ſummer evenings, when, the trees being full of leaves, the ſhadineſs of the walks is agreeable. The governor's houſe ſtands half way up the garden.

As to the ſtreets, thoſe in the lower part of the town are well paved and kept in good condition; but thoſe in the upper are, many of them, in a wretched condition, without pavement, or worſe than without, rugged portions of the rock appearing ſo plainly, that the direction of the ſtrata may be perceived. The Engliſh, however, who are every day improving and beautifying the town, will, no doubt, before long, cauſe all ſuch defects to be rectified. The ſtreets are not lighted at night, nor is there a foot pavement as in the Engliſh towns, this being in ſome meaſure prevented by the manner in which the houſes are built, with little terraces, or, as they are called here, ſtoops, which run the whole length of the houſe, and of which we ſhall ſpeak hereafter.

There are three ſquares in Cape-Town; Church-ſquare, the Market-ſquare, and Hottentot-ſquare. The firſt is the lower part of the town, ſo called from the church, the wall of which, together with the front of the government ſlave lodge, forms nearly one ſide of the ſquare. In laying the foundation of many of the houſes in this ſquare, eſpecially thoſe near the church, ſeveral tomb-ſtones with Portugueſe inſcriptions were dug up, and which probably covered the remains

of the firſt European ſettlers at this celebrated point of Africa.

The Market-ſquare is about the centre of Cape-Town, and is ſometimes called Stadthouſe-ſquare, from the town-houſe, which ſtands here. The houſes are moſtly all ſhops, and it is likewiſe the great place of reſort for the ſlaves, who aſſemble ſometimes in ſuch numbers as to fill great part of the ſquare: here, likewiſe, is expoſed to ſale fruit of all kinds, beſide oſtrich eggs, feathers, and other articles of African produce.

Hottentot-ſquare is built upon the ſlope of the Lion's Rump, inſomuch that the upper ſide of the ſquare is conſiderably more elevated than the oppoſite one. It is irregularly built and not paved. The Engliſh have lately cauſed a well to be dug here, where, if they ſucceed in finding good water, the inhabitants in the upper part of the town will be greatly benefitted, having been formerly obliged to ſend down to the very loweſt part for water. Hottentot-ſquare is the place whither come almoſt all the waggons of the country people, where they may be often ſeen drawn up, ſide by ſide, in ranks, with Hottentot ſervants from the moſt diſtant part of the colony, and of the moſt ſingular appearance, lying in them aſleep, or baſking about in the ſun. The upper ſide of this ſquare may be conſidered as the weſtern boundary of the town. The parade, or, as it is called by the Dutch, the Heere Graght, may be termed an open oblong, two ſides of which, namely to the weſt and ſouth, are regularly built, but open on the eaſt end toward the caſtle, and irregularly built toward the water. The houſes on the parade belong to the moſt reſpectable inhabitants of the Cape. From it there is a clear view of the blue mountains of Hottentot Holland; and ſince a great fire which took place here in September 1798, and conſumed a long range of government ſtables, the view is open toward the bay and the oppoſite hills. The open ſpace is interſected with ditches, and on the weſt ſide are two ſquare fountains, from which, till lately, all the water of the town was drawn. It does not riſe here, but is brought in pipes from the foot of Table Mountain to theſe fountains, from each of whoſe ſides it iſſues in a perpetual ſtream. This water in its quality is pure and excellent, and free from all ſaline or mineral taſte, an important circumſtance, ſprings of perfectly freſh water being exceedingly ſcarce in all parts of the colony.

The great road leading to the interior of the country, runs along one ſide of the parade and winds round the caſtle; not, however, without bringing you cloſe under the place of public execution, ſurrounded by a ſquare wall, and where gibbets, wheels, and ſtakes of impalement, are expoſed to public view; objects over which Engliſh humanity and delicacy ought long before this period to have thrown a veil. We come, laſtly, to the caſtle, which may be conſidered as a little town of itſelf. It ſtands cloſe to the bay, and its fortifications are in a pentagonal form. Within its walls are almoſt all the public offices; the ſecretary's, the pay-maſter-general's, the office of the vice-chamber, the poſt-office, &c. Here, alſo, the courts of admiralty are held, and all the records and regiſters of the colony kept; in a word, conſidering that the whole public buſineſs of the country circulates through here, it may be conſidered as the heart of the colony.

With reſpect to climate, that of the Cape is, upon the whole, exceedingly temperate and agreeable, but liable to ſudden changes, from heat to cold; neither are there thoſe gradual tranſitions from one ſeaſon to another that are experienced in Europe. The year is divided into two ſeaſons by the periodical winds. In the ſummer, from the month of October to March, the wind blows generally from the ſoutheaſt, and when it is violent brings along with it clouds of ſand and duſt, and forms the moſt diſagreeable part of the climate of the

Cape. The air is filled with a fine duſt, which penetrates and covers every thing, and which is carried off to ſea in ſuch quantities and with ſuch violence, that it has been perceived, on board of veſſels, many miles from the coaſt, and, as hath been aſſerted, even out of ſight of land. During the winter monſoon, on the contrary, northweſt winds prevail, and bring in with them, from the ſea, fogs, and clouds, and lightning, and rain. The clouds are ſtopped, collected by the high hills of the Cape, before they break and deſcend in rain, and the rolling noiſe of the thunder, echoed and re-echoed by the ſurrounded hills, is grand and awful. During the rains, the weather is ſometimes cold and chilly, even to an Engliſhman, who looks in vain for the comforts of an Engliſh fire-ſide: to him, the ſeaſons here are reverſed: in December, oppreſſed by the heat, he calls to remembrance the cool and ſhaded walks of his own country; while, in July, he has to regret the want of blazing fires, pleaſing ſociety, and thoſe thouſand other little comforts which beguile the winter hour, and to which the blaſt that howls without ſerves only to add a double reliſh.

AN ESSAY ON RETIREMENT.

AMONG the paſſions and deſires of mankind, which ſeem invariably to influence their conduct in different periods and ſituations, we may rank that ſtrong inclination for quiet and retirement, which appears to be one of the moſt uniform and general that operates on the human mind. A diſpoſition to enjoy tranquillity and comfort is experienced, even during the moſt gay and volatile periods of our exiſtence, but it is felt with peculiar force and energy during the declining years of life. We may obſerve that it is the natural wiſh of youth and manhood to obtrude upon the public eye, and render themſelves conſpicuous by brilliant actions, by ſpecious accompliſhments, and all the alluring arts and ſtratagems that captivate the confidence of the world, and facilitate the progreſs of their votaries in all their views and plans of avarice and ambition. The reverſe of this is viſible in the conduct and diſpoſition of thoſe who are ſinking into the decline of life, who in general ſeem as eager to withdraw from public obſervation, as the more youthful candidates appear ardent and impetuous in the purſuit of their ſchemes of pleaſure or emolument. The former having attained the uſual objects of competition, and being ſatiated with the enjoyment of them, naturally experience a degree of diſguſt or diſlike from a thorough perſuaſion of the vanity and inſignificance of the ordinary object of human emulation; while the latter, whoſe imaginations are inflamed by youthful paſſion, and the gay colouring of hope and fancy, engage in the chace with the enjoyment of a portion of pleaſure commenſurate with the full attainment of ultimate ſucceſs.

In youth they conquer with ſo wild a rage,
As ſcarcely leaves a ſubject for their age.
POPE.

Such is the natural courſe of the life of man;—he ſets out in his career with the confidence of ſucceſs, raiſed by the buoyancy of a heated imagination; he ſurmounts obſtacles, and overcomes difficulties, and when he obtains the triumph that has kept him ſo long in anxiety and ſuſpenſe, he feels diſpoſed to undervalue the object which was the aim of his moſt ardent wiſhes and exertions. Every further progreſs in life tends ſtill more to increaſe and fortify this habit of feeling and opinion, and the gradual decay of health and ſtrength concurs with mental infirmity in removing him from the buſy ſcenes of the world. In the general economy of nature, we

may obſerve that ſhe ſeduouſly avoids all abrupt and precipitate tranſitions, that ſhe prepares us for our diſſolution, by gentle and imperceptible declivities on our path through the journey of life, when every ſurrounding object, by the ſentiments with which it inſpire us, tends to remove the links and bonds to which we are ſo apt to cling, and reconcile us more effectually to a final ſeparation from all ſublunary concerns:—

Taught half by nature, half by mere decay,
To welcome Death, and calmly paſs away.
POPE.

The paſſion for retirement has been eminently conſpicuous in thoſe men who were moſt diſtinguiſhed for genius and courage, and all the noble qualities that adorn the human ſpecies: the moſt renowned ſtateſmen, the greateſt warriors, and the ſublimeſt poets, have often breathed a wiſh for that dignified retreat, the *otium cum dignitate*, which, generally ſpeaking, it has only been the lot of the happy few to acquire.

Ploravere ſuis non reſpondere favorem
Speratum Meritis. HORACE.

It has been obſerved, that the moſt beautiful paſſages in the moſt admired poems, are thoſe in which the writers gave full ſcope to their feelings, and the cheriſhed ſentiments of their hearts, without endeavouring to attract the reader's admiration by ſplendid imagery or laboured verification, and all the various methods which critics preſcribe in their rules for regulating the flights of genius, and introducing order and ſyſtem into the different departments of compoſition. Horace, who is a poetical genius of the firſt order, and who was favoured with the friendſhip of emperors and grandees, and the fortunate conſequences of that favour, could not avoid teſtifying his ardent wiſhes for retirement on ſeveral occaſions, and in terms the moſt expreſſive, and happily ſelected:—

O Rus quando ego te conſpiciam, quandoque licebit,
Nunc veterum libris, nunc ſomno et inertibus horis,
Ducere ſollicitæ jucunda oblivia vitæ.

Virgil, in this reſpect, does not yield the palm to Horace; he ſeems to be inſpired with the ſame ardour, which in him, as well as in Horace, is connected with the idea of the tranquillity and happineſs which are to be found in the cool ſhades and refreſhing groves of rural retirement; and to that circumſtance we may aſcribe the following beautiful effuſion:

Rura mihi et vigui placeant in vallibus amnes,
Flumina amem ſylvaſque inglorius campi!

The ſame turn of thought prevails in the moſt eſteemed productions of our beſt poets, but none of them ſeem to have felt the ſentiment more powerfully than Goldſmith, who had experienced the misfortunes and viciſſitudes of life, and who in all his wanderings had cheriſhed the hopes of eaſe and retirement to crown the cloſe of his days:—

O bleſt retirement, friend to life's decline,
Retreat from care, that never muſt be mine.
How bleſt is he, who crowns, in ſhades like theſe,
A youth of labour with an age of eaſe!
Who quits a world, where ſtrong temptations try,
And, ſince 'tis hard to conquer, learns to fly!
* * * * * *
Onward he moves to meet his latter end,
Angels around befriending virtue's friend;
Sinks to the grave with unperceiv'd decay,
While reſignation gently ſlopes the way;
And all his proſpects bright'ning to the laſt,
His heaven commences ere the world be paſt!

The foregoing paſſage is one of the fineſt efforts of poetic genius, and is finiſhed with that correctneſs of taſte, and tenderneſs of ſentiment, which diſtinguiſh the happier productions of Goldſmith's Muſe. The ſentiments it contains, like the celebrated production of Gray, will, to uſe Dr.

Johnſon's emphatic expreſſion, 'find an echo in every breaſt;' and indeed that is the chief merit of poetical, and every other ſpecies of compoſition, which ought, according to the happy definition of Addiſon, to be made up of thoughts and expreſſions, which are familiar without being obvious.

It muſt be acknowledged, however, that the degree of happineſs and compoſure, which is uſually expected from retirement, does not correſpond exactly with the wiſhes and expectations of numbers, who reſort to it in order to exempt themſelves from the cares and troubles of life. Men, whoſe minds are ſore with the conſcious recollection of their crimes, or lacerated with the inroads of the moſt violent paſſions and perturbations, cannot reaſonably expect tranquillity and compoſure in any ſituation in life. It cannot be ſuppoſed that Sylla and Verres were very happy in their retreat; and as far as we can learn, the more blameleſs character of Dioclefian and Charles v, repented of their choice of voluntary retirement, from ſtations of the higher dignity and ſplendour. It muſt be laid down as an incontrovertible poſition, that the poſſeſſion of a good conſcience is the firſt requiſite in order to enjoy the bleſſings which reſult from a ſtate of retirement and tranquillity; and indeed, in every ſtate, whether occupied, or unemployed, the remembrance of a well-ſpent life is the ſweeteſt balm of declining years, and the ſureſt corrective of that moroſeneſs and ill humour which, in a greater or leſs degree, fail not to infeſt old age. Religion and piety are likewiſe powerful ingredients in this aſſemblage of happy qualities, and give the laſt completion to that degree of virtuous and patient reſignation that crowns the cloſe of the good man's days.

However acceptable retirement may have been found to be to conſpicuous and eminent characters, or even to the humbler claſs of mercantile dealers and ſpeculators, it muſt be acknowledged that, to the learned philoſophers, and the literati in general, it has been always an object that attracted their warmeſt wiſhes and aſpirations. Retirement ſeems to be the natural ſphere of a man of ſcience; and indeed, in general, men of letters ſeem to be unqualified for the buſy and turbulent ſcenes of life. The labours of ſcience have been uſually ſtyled peaceful and unambitious, and from the examples of the literati, who aſpired to the walks of ambition and political intrigues, we can augur very little ſucceſs for their future imitators. Let them enlighten mankind from the calm and cool ſhade of retirement, but not embarraſs and diſorder them by taking a part in their active and turbulent purſuits. The true philoſopher will look with tranquillity and unconcern on the ſtorms that agitate the ocean of life, and if any paſſion may touch his breaſt, it will be the ardent deſire of improving the hearts and underſtandings of his fellow-creatures, and thereby preparing them for higher degrees of happineſs and virtue.—

Soli quippe vacat ſtudiis odiiſque carenti,
Humanum lugere genus.— LUCAN.

A NOBLE REPLY OF THESCA.

WHEN Polixenes, her huſband, ſuſpicious of the intentions of the tyrant againſt his life, had embarked privately and left Syracuſe, Dionyſius accuſed his ſiſter Theſca of being privy to the flight of her huſband. 'What,' replied the heroine, 'do you think my boſom inhabited by ſo baſe a ſpirit, that, had I known of his departure, I ſhould not have attended him? or that fortune can throw Polixenes into any ſituation, in which I ſhould not be happy to ſhare with him its ſorrows or its joys?'

THE BRITISH MUSE.

GRATULATIO OB NUPTIAS.

By the Rev. R—— S——.

AB AMICO AD AMICUM.

JAM nunc, dum loquimur, ſolitis Hyperion ab undis
Se tollit, radioſque per orbem
Latè creſcentes tendit, Nymphæque fluenti
Verſantur ſuper æquore colnæ.
Ch— mi ſylvas pede jam ſaltante pererrant,
Hìc Fauni, hìc Dryadeſque puellæ.
Hìc et ſacra canunt paſtores, panaque laudant,
Conſuetæ memores pietatis,
Ipſe autem ramum dextrâ tenet arboris, olim
Arcadiæ quam duxit ab umbris,
Temporaque elatæ ſpe fauſtâ Amaryllidis ornat,
Dum ſpouſam petit anxcias Alcmon.—
Jam nunc, dum loquimar, radios Hyperion adauget!—
Huc, pueri, huc adducite avenas.
Aggredere O felix incondita dicere paſtor
Carmina—ſervatit Deus agnos.
Jam choreas agites vos inſtaurate puellæ,
Thyadis haud curſus imitatæ —
Purpurei veſtem, Deus O Hymenæe, coloris
Affer dextrâ, accendeque tædam.
Tu, Cytherea, tibi dilectam Troadis Idam
Deſere, mox et junge columbas.—
En! votis præſens, nato comitante, per auras
Deſcendit dea, et alma ſiniſtrâ
Fert ceſtam, dextrâque duos imitat ad aram,
Et ſolitos indicit honores.
Jamque Hymenæus adeſt—felicia vincula jungit—
Et lætus ferit æthera clamor.
Fauſti ſint thalami, et ſemper lux candida fati,
Qualis nunc, alluceat horis.
O utinam! longos decurrat, Amice, per annos
Vita tua—et tua, caſta puella.—
Vos pietate pares, animi quoque dotibus iidem,
Uſque iram affecteris honeſto.
Sit vobis perlæta dies, ſint otia, laudes,
Proles, vina Falerna, et amici.
Et cùm fila legent vobis extrema ſorores,
Occabitque colum atropos atra;
O utinam! in tumulum vos deſcendatis, ad æva
Longa bonis meritò defleti!

POOR ALLEYNE.

[By the Same.]

FRIEND of Pity! tell me now,
Why on craggy Snowden's brow
Sits Alleyne, Sorrow's child?
The ſtormy wind his harp hath torn,
And far and wide the fragments borne,
To ſtrew the deſert wild.
And nought the penſive youth doth ſay,
But only this, ah well-a-day!—

But whence proceeds poor Alleyne's care?
And why does Alleyne ſorrow there,
On craggy Snowden's bed?—
Becauſe the maid he lov'd ſo well,
Did all on craggy Snowden dwell;
And now, alas! ſhe's dead!—
And nought the penſive youth can ſay,
But only this, ah, well-a-day!—

I've heard him oft his ſtory tell,
From the ſad harp he tun'd ſo well,
While Memory wrung his breaſt.
Alas! thou cruel, cruel wind!
Could'ſt thou not leave his harp behind,
That ſooth'd his ſoul to reſt?
Well now the penſive youth may ſay,
With ſwollen eye, ah, well-a-day!—

Ill-fated youth! thou ſhalt not mourn,
Becauſe thy ſoothing harp is gone
To ſtrew the deſert way,
I'll go, poor heart! and buy thee one,
And when thy woe-fraught ditty's done,
I'll wipe thy tears away.
Nor longer ſhalt thou only ſay,
With penſive heart, ah, well-a-day!—

A FAREWELL TO MARGATE.

FAREWELL! ye chalky cliffs, where lovers walk,
In dread of tumbling over as they talk;
Farewell, ye ſtyliſh farms, and ſtoney fields;
Ye ruſſet lanes, ſo open to the ſun,
Where whiſkies, buggies, ſulkies, tandems, run,
And all the dear delicious duſt they yield!

Farewell! ye flinty ſands, ſo damp, ſo ſoft,
On whoſe ſtupendous margin Echo cries,
And multiplies the ſib, while Strephon —lies,
And gazers peep upon us from aloft!
Where Eurus ſends his fogs amid the air,
And nymphs cut ſhoes at—half a pound per pair!

Where ſlipp'ry ſea-weeds trip us as we ſtray,
Where city mermaids feud about in cluſters,
To poke for crabs, while ſurly ocean bluſters,
And pools inſidious intercept the way.

Farewell! blythe Dandelion and its ſports,
So matchleſs—ſo ecſtatic—ſo divine!
Where dapper cits, like little gods appear,
Wounding young Chloes with a civil leer;
Where ſhepherds learn to eat, and dance, and court;
Swilling hot coffee 'neath a fervid beam;
Devouring half-bak'd crumpets while they ſteam,
So fraught with Cambridge butter, or with greaſe;
Where gentry haſte with half-a-crown a-piece,
And hungry beaux in the meridian dine!

Farewell! ye raffling ſhops, where fortune fires
Her vagrant crew to quit life's ſolid joys,
For gilded gewgaws and illuſion's toys,
While knavery moves the puppets ſhe inſpires!

The hoy's in motion—I muſt now depart,
Like a young turkey-pout, with heavy heart,
I muſt return to induſtry's brown tub,
To get up ſmall clothes, and to darn a ſtocking;
Is not this irkſome, horrible, and ſhocking?
Will Cupid ſuffer it?—I fear he will.
Why are our moments ſprinkled o'er with ill?
Pity your abſent friend!

PRISCILLA GRUB.

THE CHAPLET.

OH yes, I will ſearch through the garden with care,
For Emilia the prime of its beauty I'll ſteal,
To bloom on her boſom, or twine in her hair;
And each leaf and each bud ſhall an emblem conceal.

But ſay, ſimple bard, can a flower aſſume
The charms that alone to Emilia belong?
In thy numbers the pride of the garden may bloom,
But its grace ſhe ſurpaſſes, and needs not thy ſong.

'Tis true—yet perhaps ſhe the gift will receive,
Nor deny it a place on her boſom to find:
For it ſeeks not to vie in the Chaplet I weave,
With the grace of her form, or the charm of her mind.

The hyacinth there ſhall its beauty diſplay,
That boſom's beſt emblem; for poets have ſung,
'Twas affection's warm tear that enliven'd the clay,
Whence the ſad drooping flower of tenderneſs ſprung.

The lauruſtine hardy, that braves the rude blaſt,
Shall twine in the Chaplet, an emblem of me:
'Tis conſtancy's flower, that ever ſhall laſt,
And conſtancy only is worthy of thee.

The cowſlip, enrob'd in her mantle of gold,
O'er the Chaplet her bright-bending breaſt ſhall incline;
For an heart dropping blood lies conceal'd in its fold,
And 'twill bloom to Emilia the record of mine.

And oh, in the wreath ſhould the myrtle preſume
To intrude, and Emilia its verdure approve,
How ſweetly the chaplet 'twould deck with its bloom!
'Tis the flower of Venus, and emblem of love.

The lilly, array'd in her ſnowy cimarre,
On her boſom ſhall ſhine, than her boſom leſs pure;
There truth from her diadem dropt a bright ſtar,
And the gem with Emilia ſhall ever endure.

—And ſhall not the roſe in the Chaplet be found,
The breaſt of thy favourite fair to adorn?
Ah no—for its beauty ſharp perils ſurround,
And far from Emilia I'd baniſh the thorn.
'Tis the flower of war:—and its white and its red
Have ſilvered the banner, and crimſon'd the ſhield,
And ſons againſt ſires to battle have led,
And ſtained with the ſlaughter of brothers the field.

But the olive its leaf more congenial ſhall lend,
That bids the wild ſpirit of enmity ceaſe;
And it's verdure with virtue's fair violet blend,
For ſtill may her breaſt be the manſion of peace!

IRELAND.

Dublin, Sept. 23.

LORD Norbury ſat this day at the ſpecial commiſſion, purſuant to adjournment. The city grand jury returned bills of indictment for high treaſon againſt John M'Intoſh and Thomas Kinnahan, who were accordingly put to the bar to have counſel and agents aſſigned to them. Copies of the indictments were alſo given to the priſoners, who were informed that they muſt be ready for their trials on Friday next. The court adjourned to Tueſday, when the trial of Henry Howley will take place, on a charge for high treaſon, not for the alledged murder of Hanlon, as erroneouſly ſuppoſed. Special commiſſions of oyer and terminer, for the trial of priſoners charged with high treaſon, have been iſſued for the counties of Down and Antrim. The juſtices are Mr. baron George and Mr. juſtice Oſborne, The commiſſion will be opened at Downpatrick on the 10th, and at Carrickfergus on the 13th of October.

Sept. 28.—This day, Howley, one of the inſurgents, who had hired the depot for the rebel arms and ammunition, was tried and convicted, This is the man who ſhot Hanlon, the keeper of the Tower in the Caſtle, when he went to arreſt him; but for this crime he was not indicted. Sentence of death was immediately paſſed upon him upon his being convicted.

Sept. 29.—Yeſterday, Henry Howley was executed according to his ſentence, at the front of the New Priſon. Before the rope was adjuſted he requeſted leave to addreſs the people; the extreme contrition and repentance which he expreſſed induced the ſheriffs to yield to his deſire; he accordingly came out upon the platform, and raiſing his voice ſo as to be heard to a conſiderable diſtance, ſaid nearly as follows:—"Good people, pray for me—and pray that I may be forgiven my ſins, which I heartily repent of.—Good people, you ſee to what a ſituation I am brought by my own folly and by bad adviſers.—Good people love each other, and forget all animoſities—relinquiſh your fooliſh purſuits, which if you continue to follow, will, in the end, bring you to the ſituation in which I now ſtand." He confeſſed that he had, with his own hand, murdered colonel Browne, of the 21ſt regiment, on the night of the rebellion. He appeared fully ſenſible of the enormity of his crime, as well as that of the murder of John Hanlon, the tower-keeper, and exhibited an appearance of the deepeſt remorſe, entirely different from that ſullen and ferocious apathy with which ſo many of his accomplices have met their fate.

Oct. 1.—This day John M'Intoſh was tried before the ſpecial commiſſion, on the ſame charge of high treaſon with thoſe whoſe trials preceded him. The jury having been ſworn, Mr. Attorney General ſhortly ſtated the caſe, which was fully and in every part ſuſtained by the evidence. There was no tenable defence ſet up.—Some perſons were adduced to character; and the jury, without retiring, returned a verdict—guilty.

Oct. 3.—Thomas Keenan was tried this day on the ſame charges of high treaſon with thoſe who preceded him. It was proved that he was an aſſociate of M'Intoſh, who was convicted on Saturday, and was arreſted along with him in the town of Arklow, whither they had fled after the 23d of July. The jury, after five minutes conference, returned a verdict—guilty. Sentence of death was immediately pronounced.

M'Intoſh, convicted on Saturday, was this day executed in Patrick-ſtreet, oppoſite to the houſe where he had been manufacturing the powder for rebellion.

Oct. 5.—Dennis Lambert Redmond was this day put to the bar on trial for high treaſon, on two branches of the ſtatute of 25 Edw. III. as in former caſes, viz. compaſſing and imagining the death of the king, and conſpiring to levy war againſt him.

The attorney-general in ſtating the caſe for the crown, obſerved, that this trial would be the laſt with which the gentlemen of the jury ſhould be troubled during the preſent commiſſion; yet he could not pledge himſelf that the priſoner at the bar, if found guilty, would be the laſt victim to juſtice, as others ſtill remain, whoſe atrocities in the traitorous occurrence which had ſo recently come within public obſervation, were too conſpicuous to be overlooked, yet it would, as in all former inſtances, be incumbent on the gentlemen of the jury moſt completely to diſcharge their minds from every ſpecies of reſentment which might have aroſe through the impreſſion of former trials, or through any occurrence whatever in which the name of the

priſoner at the bar might have previouſly come within their view or contemplation—under the circumſtances and principles of inveſtigation, which he uniformly conſidered his duty to inculcate, little more would remain for him than to give a narrative of the treaſonable tranſaction, in which, if he was well inſtructed, the priſoner at the bar took a moſt decided and active part. It would appear in the evidence to be produced, that the priſoner at the bar, on Friday the 22d of July, had a conference with a Mr. Allen, who at that time reſided in College-green; that on the following morning of that memorable day, the evening of which was uſhered in with treaſon, maſſacres, and bloodſhed, not to be deſcribed, the priſoner at the bar, accompanied by the Mr. Allen, alluded to, another perſon whom it is not expedient to name, and a man of the name of M'Cabe, iſſued from Allen's houſe, and made their way to a field near the Grand Canal harbour, where they four conſulted about the means of commencing their enterprize, which it was evident they had in view for an early hour of the night; from this field they proceeded to the houſe of a Mr. Brown, who keeps a houſe of entertainment near Iſland bridge, where theſe four perſons, among whom the priſoner at the bar was one, did breakfaſt, and after breakfaſt did retire to a garden belonging to Brown's houſe, and there did confederate and deliberate upon ſuch plans as gave riſe to the treaſons, murders, and atrocities of the ſucceeding evening. After this evening, in the actual perpetration of any of the horrible and treaſonable practices by which it was diſgraced, it would not be attempted to offer the leaſt matter in proof that the priſoner at the bar, by his perſonal attendance, advice, or encouragement, had been in any degree engaged; it would, however, be advanced in evidence, that he made a retreat from the city of Dublin, took his paſſage by water, and was apprehended at Newry by a reſpectable officer of that diſtrict, who interrogated him on the oddity of the circumſtance, that he ſhould be the ſingle perſon on board the veſſel which had not a paſſport from Dublin, according to the orders which had been iſſued in the capital, in conſequence of the inſurrection of the night of the 23d of July. This difficulty the priſoner at the bar, however, attempted to obviate, by alledging that he had a paſſport in his trunk or deſk, which unfortunately in a heavy ſea, or ſome caſualty of danger generally conceived attached to ſea voyages, had been in the paſſage waſhed overboard.—With this excuſe the officer, whoſe buſineſs it was to attend to matters of that nature, ſeemed ſatisfied; the more ſo, as the priſoner at the bar offered to write a letter to alderman Trevor, for an original certificate, or duplicate of any paſs he affected to have had. This letter the priſoner did write; but after waiting two poſts for an anſwer, no anſwer arrived, and the officer, whoſe duty it was to have taken the priſoner into cuſtody, conducted him to Dublin.—In their way thither, while coming through Drogheda, the gentleman who had the priſoner in cuſtody, treating him as he ſhould have done, with every polite accommodation he could procure, naturally ſat in his company while reſting in that town. In the converſation which occurred, the witneſs to be adduced heard the priſoner expatiate with great approbation on the principles of French politics in general, but moſt particularly on the diſtinguiſhed humanity of the firſt conſul of France.

Previous to their arrival, however, major Sirr, that active and reſpectable officer, to whom this country owes ſo much, had information through the preſent lord mayor of Dublin, then Alexander Hutton, that pikes and pike-handles, in great numbers, might be diſcovered in an old houſe at the back of the Coal-quay. This place major Sirr explored, and from certain obſervations he made, he thought it probable that in the front houſe adjacent to theſe concerns might be found a receptacle for ſingular weapons, or other treaſonable materials. On examining the houſe, certain caſes or machines were found, in the ſhape of deal balks; theſe were originally pieces of foreign timber, excavated to receive pikes, and in the cavity numbers of theſe inſtruments were diſcovered, with the ſervice of the balk, after having been ſawed off, placed and rivetted as a cover to conceal the contents. It would appear that the priſoner at the bar, after having been committed to the cuſtody of major Sirr, did make ſuch confeſſion to him as would go to the jury as a ſtrong circumſtance to corroborate the evidence to be adduced againſt him, and that he had in his poſſeſſion a paper writing, containing expreſſions and ſentiments of an extraordinary nature: one was congratulating his countrymen that the day would ſoon arrive when the ſcripture principle would be realized—"An eye for an eye, a leg for a leg, and an arm for an arm."

In this paper, deſigned as it would appear for publication, the writer exhorted his countrymen to be 'as gentle as lambs, but as vigilant as lions,' to avoid as much as poſſible all thoſe caſualties which had occurred to defeat their cauſe during the rebellion of 1798, ariſing from drunkenneſs, infidelity to each other, and a baſe dereliction of the principle on which they ought to be ſteady and united.

M'Cabe, a witneſs, who appeared on the firſt day of the ſpecial commiſſion in the character of an approver, depoſed to the firſt part of the attorney-general's ſtatement, reſpecting the interview between Allen, of College Green, the nameleſs perſon, the priſoner at the bar, and himſelf.'

Other evidence, as appeared by the verdict, notwithſtanding an able defence for the priſoner by Mr. M'Nally, ſubſtantiated the attorney-general's clear and candid ſtatement.—Verdict guilty.

He was executed oppoſite his own door, on the Coal Quay, this day, about half-paſt two o'clock.

Yeſterday, Keenan, convicted on Monday, was executed in Thomas-ſtreet.

Oct. 12.—Yeſterday a privy council ſat at the Caſtle, when a proclamation was iſſued, offering high rewards for apprehending the following perſons charged with being guilty of high treaſon, viz—William Dowdall, of the city of Dublin, gent. John Allen of the city of Dublin, woollen-draper; William Hamilton, of Enniſkillen, in the county of Fermanagh, gent. Michael Quixley, of Rathcoffey, in the county of Kildare, bricklayer; Owen Lyons, of Maynooth, in the county of Kildare, ſhoe-maker; Thomas Trenaghan, of Crew Hill, in the county of Kildare, farmer; Nicholas Stafford, of James-ſtreet, in the city of Dublin, baker; Thomas Frayne, of Boven, in the county of Kildare, farmer; Thomas Wilde, of Cork-ſtreet, in the city of Dublin, cotton-manufacturer; and John Mahon, of Cork-ſtreet, aforeſaid, man-ſervant.

Oct. 14.—Quigley, the bricklayer, and Stafford, the baker, the two junior conſels of the proviſional government, and who alſo acted as lieutenant-generals on the night of the 23d of July, have been juſt brought into town, together with a perſon of the name of Perrot, under an eſcort of the 16th Dragoons. They were apprehended in Galway by the exertions of lord Dunlo.

Lieutenant King, of the 29th of Dragoons, had apprehended Law, Toole, and Whelton, charged with being concerned in the rebellion of the 23d of July, and alſo identified as the perſons who robbed Mr. Foote's houſe of a quantity of fire-arms. The party alſo took up Michael Nolan and James Dunn, charged with rebellion. Terence Doyle, of Kilbrading, apprentice of Myles Dignam, in Grafton-ſtreet, and William Doyle, of Rathvilly, both of whom appeared in the county of Wicklow ſoon after the 23d, are in the guard-houſe of Baltinglaſs.

NAVAL INTELLIGENCE.

[From the London Gazette.]

Admiralty-office, Sept. 27, 1803.

Copy of a Letter from the Right Hon. Lord Keith, K.B. Admiral of the Blue, &c. to Sir Evan Nepean, Bart. dated on board his Majeſty's Ship, Monarch, off Broadſtairs, the 25th inſtant.

Sir,

I tranſmit, for their lordſhip's information, a letter which I have received from rear-admiral Montague, and one which was addreſſed to him by Mr. Joſeph Thomas, the maſter of the Princeſs Auguſta hired armed cutter, of eight three pounder guns, and twenty-five men, reporting the particulars of an engagement between that veſſel and two Dutch armed ſchooners, in which lieutenant Scott, her commanding officer, has been killed. The reſiſtance made by the Princeſs Auguſta to ſo ſuperior a force, does great credit to the gallant but unfortunate officer who commanded her, as well as the maſter and her crew.—

I have the honour to be, &c.

KEITH.

Utrecht, in the Downs,

My lord, Sept. 23.

The Princeſs Auguſta hired armed cutter arrived at Dover this evening: her lieutenant, J. W. Scott, gunner, William Lavender, and boatſwain, William Cornelius, being ſlain in battle on the 20th inſtant, in combat with two Dutch ſchooners, the one mounting twelve guns, and ſeventy men, the other eight guns and fifty men. The lieutenant, in his dying moments, recommended the maſter to fight the cutter bravely, and to tell the admiral he did his duty. Theſe expreſſions, my lord, in the moments of diſſolution, will

endear his memory to his countrymen; and, while thoſe immediately connected with him ſigh at the recollection of their loſs, they will have the conſolation to reflect, that he fell glorioufly in his country's cauſe, expiring with the heroiſm of a Britiſh officer. Two ſeamen, Crump and Roſe, are alſo wounded; the former with a ball in the thigh, the latter with a ball above the ancle. The Princeſs Auguſta, your lordſhip will recollect, is one of the ſmalleſt cutters under your lordſhip's command, being about 70 tons. The conduct of Joſeph Thomas the maſter, and the crew of this little veſſel, fighting bravely after the loſs of their officer, and beating off two veſſels of ſuch ſuperior force, merits more encomium than my pen is enabled to expreſs.

I have the honour to be, &c.

ROBERT MONTAGUE.

His Majeſty's hired Cutter, Princeſs Auguſta, Joſeph Thomas, Maſter.

Sir,

Saturday, September 24th, three hours, four minutes, P. M. I landed at Dover, not being able to get into the Downs this tide. After delivering orders from lord Keith to his majeſty's ſhips cruizing off Helvoetſluys, Texel, and the entrance of the Elbe, on Tueſday the 20th inſtant, at five P. M. Texel bearing S. W. diſtance fifteen leagues, ſaw two ſchooners in the S. W. bearing down toward us, under Engliſh colours; got all clear for action, ſuſpecting them to be enemies. At half paſt ſix, P. M. they hauled down their Engliſh colours, and hoiſted Dutch; then, being within hail, aſked what ſloop we was. Lieutenant Scott anſwered, Princeſs Auguſta. The largeſt, which hailed, being to windward, gave us a broadſide, which killed our gunner and boatſwain, and wounded lieutenant Scott in the ſhoulder, who died the next morning, at forty-five minutes paſt nine, A. M. with his wound. We then returned our broadſide at the largeſt, which mounted 12 guns, and had on board 70 men, who endeavoured to board us ſeveral times to windward, which was the larboard ſide. The ſmalleſt, which mounted eight guns, and had on board fifty men, agreeable to the number we ſaw on deck, which came up under our lee and gave us his broadſide, then endeavoured to board us; but after an hour's engagement, cloſe quarters, with the largeſt one's bowſprit over our ſtern, ſeveral times, by the aſſiſtance of the mate and exertions of the crew we beat them off: but our rigging and hull being much damaged, and having two men killed and three wounded out of our ſmall number, we were not able to renew the action.

I have the honour to be, &c.

JOSEPH THOMAS.

Admiralty-office, Oct. 1, 1803.

Copy of a Letter tranſmitted by Rear-admiral Montague to Sir Evan Nepean, Bart.

His Majeſty's Sloop, Autumn, off Calais, 28th Sept. 1803.

The wind ſpringing up yeſterday morning from the eaſtward, I thought it a proper opportunity to attack the enemy's veſſels in Calais, in order that they ſhould not get them up the harbour out of the reach of our fire: I waited till it was half ebb in the harbour, at which time they take ground: we then bore up, and, after trying and finding out the diſtance, we anchored—the bombs to the N. E. of the town, the other part of the ſquadron a-breaſt of the town and pier heads, to draw the enemy's fire as much as we could from the bombs, ſo as not to prevent their acting. After we anchored a-breaſt of the town and pier-head battery, the enemy opened their fire on us from all directions, among which I found they had mortars: the firſt ſhell fell within a ſhip's length of us, and burſt under water: our veſſels at that time were ſo cloſe, that I thought there was a great probability ſome of their ſhells might fall on board, while I found our ſhot (though they all reached the pier heads), would not go ſo far up as their ſhips, I therefore made the ſignal to weigh and open to a greater diſtance, remaining at anchor myſelf. The ſquadron has been very fortunate in receiving no damage from the enemy's fire. The bombs were now keeping up a well-directed fire, many of the ſhells evidently falling in the midſt of their gun boats. The ſhells that fell over the boats went into the town, and muſt have done great damage: the eaſt end of the town appeared to be on fire for ſome time. From the enemy's boats and veſſels being covered under the land, it was impoſſible to judge what damage they ſuſtained, but it muſt have been conſiderable. It now came on to blow ſo freſh from the N. E. that the ſprings would not hold the ſhip againſt the wind and tide: the Tartarus' anchor having given way, I was obliged to make the ſignal to diſcontinue their fire.

I have the honour to be, &c.

S. JACKSON.

Copy of a Letter from the Right Hon. Lord Keith, K. B. Admiral of the Blue, &c. to Sir Evan Nepean, Bart. dated on board his Majeſty's Ship, Monarch, off Broadſtairs, the 30th September, 1803.

Sir,

I encloſe, for their lordſhip's information, a copy of a letter from captain Honyman, of his majeſty's ſhip the Leda, to rear-admiral Montague, reporting the attempts which he had made, with his majeſty's ſhips and veſſels under his orders, to obſtruct the progreſs of the enemy's gun-boats from the eaſtward toward the port of Boulogne; and have the honour to be, &c.

KEITH.

His Majeſty's Ship, Leda, off Boulogne,

Sir, Sept. 29, 1803.

In anſwer to your's of this date, I have the honour to acquaint you, that the enemy's gun-veſſels, being 26 in number, were yeſterday diſcovered coming out of Calais ſoon after I had diſpatched lieutenant Cameron to you. I immediately gave chaſe with the ſquadron under my command; but, although every exertion was made on our part, they anchored cloſe in with the pier at Boulogne, after a ſevere cannonade of three hours, which was returned from them, as well as their numerous batteries on ſhore. It was my intention to have bombarded them in that ſituation, and had made the ſignal for that purpoſe; but the wind blowing ſtrong off ſhore, and a lee tide, prevented the bombs from taking their ſtation accordingly. At day light this morning, another ſquadron of the enemy's gun-boats (25 in number) were diſcovered coming from the eaſt-ward. I immediately proceeded to attack them, and, after a ſevere cannonade for nearly three hours, they anchored in the ſituation with the veſſels laſt night, with the loſs of two of them, they having been driven on ſhore, and bilged upon the rocks. There are at preſent 55 gun-veſſels at anchor outſide the pier of Boulogne. I am happy to add that I have not received reports of any material injury being done to any of the ſquadron under my command. A ſhell fell on board the Leda, which burſt in her hold, doing little injury to the ſhip, and without hurting a man.

I have the honour to be, &c.

R. HONYMAN.

Admiralty-office, October 4, 1803.

Copy of a Letter from the Right Honourable Lord Keith, K. B. Admiral of the Blue, &c. to Sir Evan Nepean, Bart. dated on board his Majeſty's Ship Monarch, off Broadſtairs, the 2d inſtant.

Sir,

I incloſe, for their lordſhips information, a copy of a letter which has been received by rear-admiral Montagu from lieutenant Leaver, commanding his majeſty's gun-brig the Jackall, reporting the capture of one of the enemy's armed ſloops; and have the honour to be, &c.

KEITH.

His Majeſty's Gun-brig, Jackall,

Sir, off Oſtend, Sept. 29, 1803.

I have the honour to acquaint you, that this afternoon I gave chaſe to a veſſel running along ſhore between Nieuport and Dunkirk, but it falling nearly calm, I diſpatched Mr. Simpſon, maſter, ſix ſeamen, and four marines, to board her, which duty they performed in a very ſpirited manner under a heavy fire from three field-pieces brought on the beach, and a ſmall battery of two guns, within half piſtol ſhot, the enemy being aground when boarded. She proves to be an armed ſloop of four two-pounders, belonging to Dunkirk; I believe taken up for the conveyance of troops. Her crew eſcaped on ſhore to the number of ten or twelve. A light breeze ſpringing up, with the aſſiſtance of my ſweeps, I was enabled to arrive time enough with the brig to cover the boat and prize coming off. Although the ſloop kept a continual fire on the boat, I am happy to ſay there was not any perſon hurt. She ran on ſhore betwixt the Calms and the Maia. The maſterly manner in which Mr. Purdie, pilot, conducted the brig in that navigation, does him great credit. I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) C. P. LEAVER, lieutenant and commander.

Rear-Admiral Montagu.

Admiralty-office, October 20.

A letter from vice-admiral Gambier introduces the following:—

Extract of a Letter from Captain Malbon, commanding his Majeſty's ſhip Aurora, to Vice-admiral Gambier, Commander in Chief at Newfoundland, &c.

On the 30th of June, about four o'clock in the morning, I made the iſland of St. Peter's; and at five ſent the large cutter and launch, manned and armed with a twelve pound carronade, under the command of lieutenant Richard Longfield Davies, and lieutenant Baille, of the ma-

rines, to oblige the town to ſurrender, or begin the attack; between ſix and ſeven o'clock they entered the harbour, under a very thick fog, and perceived a boat croſſing from one ſide to the other, brought her to, in which they found the commiſſary, who acted as governor. The confuſion that the place was thrown into from the ſudden attack prevented the inhabitants from aſſembling together, and at half-paſt ſeven the commiſſary ſurrendered the iſland, by delivering the colours to lieutenant Davies. From what has been ſince learned, there is no doubt, that, if the inhabitants could have had time to have collected themſelves from their different ſituations, they would have made a ſtrong reſiſtance, having ſince diſcovered upward of 100 ſtand of arms among them. Knowing the ſmall force in the boats, I uſed my utmoſt efforts to get his majeſty's ſhip into the harbour, but was as frequently prevented by thick fogs. About eleven, it being ſomewhat clear, I entered under a very heavy preſs of ſail between the rocks, which were not a cable's length acroſs, and at two P. M. brought to with the beſt bower in fifteen fathom water. Found here a French merchant-brig (Le Reines des Anges) and a ſchooner (Le Prevoyier) with eleven ſmall ſchooners, and upward of 100 battoes. The iſland contained fiſh, ſtores, ſalt, and merchandiſe of various deſcriptions, and, upon a rough ſurvey about 120 men were upon the iſland and in the boats; but they being ſo detached, ſeveral got away in the ſmall craft, one of which, I have ſince been informed, was taken off Liverpool, in Nova Scotia, and another at St. Lawrence, in Newfoundland.

On every thing being ſecured, I ordered one of the fiſhing ſchooners to be fitted as a tender, and, having her manned and armed with a twelve-pound carronade, gave the command to lieutenant Davies, with directions to ſcour the coaſt, and take poſſeſſion of the iſlands of Great and Little Miquelon, which he did, but no inhabitants or ſtores were found at either of thoſe places.

J. GAMBIER.

CAPTURES FROM THE ENEMY.

L'ALCION, of 16 guns, by the Narciſſus.

La Caroline, of eight guns, by the Conſtance.

L'Aventure, of 28 guns, by the Acaſta.

L'Alerte, of 14 guns, by L'Aigle.

EAST INDIES.

THE following official communication has lately been received by the company's ſhip the Travers, from Bombay, dated ſo late as the 2d of April. The return of the hon. company's cruizer Ternate, under the command of lieutenant Dobic, of his majeſty's navy, affords us an opportunity of ſtating ſuch particulars as have been received of the very gallant and ſpirited exertions of the commander, officers, and crews, of the ſeveral veſſels who lately left this harbour on a cruize to the northward. The principal object of the expedition has been moſt fully and completely effected, in the deſtruction of every veſſel and boat to be found in the harbours and receſſes of the piratical plunderers who have ſo long annoyed and interrupted the merchandize of this coaſt. The ſubſequent attack on the fort of Bate, while it diſplayed the moſt heroic and determined courage of the ſmall party by whom it was undertaken, was at laſt obliged to be abandoned, from the advantageous poſition of a numerous enemy, who could not, however, prevent our troops from a regular and orderly retreat, and even keeping them in check while they withdrew.

The firſt ſervice performed by the ſhips was on the 28th of February, under the walls of the caſtle of Bate iſland, where they effected an anchorage through the narrow channel between the point of Somia iſland, and Sandy-point off Artura iſland. In this paſſage the enemy fired at the ſhip, from a gun on a little ſandy hillock to the northward of Bate-town, and afterward from another gun on the oppoſite ſhore. The gun on the Artura ſhore was ſilenced after a few ſhot from the ſhips, while the other continued, and lodged one ſhot under the main chains, and another cut the main-top and ſheet of the Ternate. A third gun afterward opened from a rocky hill above the fort, cloſe to the water ſide: here, however, the ſhips anchored, and having opened a heavy fire on the hill, the enemy were ſoon obliged to deſert the poſt. The Teignmouth and Pattamar anchored abreaſt the fort, and opened a fire on it. Boats manned and armed were then diſpatched to burn ſome boats hauled up under the rocky hill, while the ſhips kept firing in ſuch direction on the fort and hill as were calculated to cover the boats, which ſoon returned, after fully

performing the ſervice, without loſs. The boats were again diſpatched to deſtroy ſeveral more veſſels hauled up under the walls of the fort, while the fire from the ſhips was directed at the fort, to cover the operation of the boats. At this time the enemy opened and kept up a very heavy diſcharge of muſquetry on the party belonging to the boats, who, notwithſtanding, proceeded in their object of burning the veſſels, conſiſting of one brig and 22 or 23 ſmall craft of various deſcriptions. In this ſervice one man belonging to the Fox was killed, and four wounded. Mr. Peter Rainier, and acting lieutenant Maughan, were of the number of the latter.

On the 1ſt of March, a ſmall ſquadron of boats was ordered to deſtroy ſix or ſeven veſſels ſtill remaining under the walls of the fort. The enemy opened their fire of muſquetry and one gun; but the ſervice was performed by burning all the craft to be found under the port, which, including thoſe deſtroyed on the laſt occaſion, makes the number of thirty veſſels, of various deſcriptions. Several of the men were here wounded.

After cruizing for ſome time off the iſlands, it was reſolved to make an attack on the fort of Bate, and for that purpoſe, the ſhips having come to an anchor under the walls, a raft was conſtructed to convey the artillery deſtined for the ſervice on ſhore, which was effected.—The party which landed with the field pieces conſiſted, in the whole, of 237, officers, ſeamen, and ſepoys included, drawn from the ſhips Fox, Teignmouth, and Ternate, and the armed Pattamar; the whole under the command of captain Vaſhon, of the Fox, and the following officers:—lieutenants Dobie, Henderſon, Davis, Flint, and Collier; meſſrs. Rainier, Cameron, and Grift, midſhipmen of the navy, and lieutenant Hepburn, of the Bombay marine.

The party marched up the brow of the hill with their two field-pieces, toward the fort, under an inceſſant fire of muſquetry from the enemy, which was oppoſed from the ſhips, keeping a conſtant and well-directed fire on the fort; but in addition to the defence from the walls, ſuch were the numbers of the enemy, that they made a ſally upon the party, who were obliged to retire, effecting their retreat in good order, and afterward directing their field-pieces upon the ſallying party, which compelled them to give way in their turn.

It is with ſincere regret we cloſe this account by mentioning the officers and men who were killed and wounded in the ſervice; among the latter is captain Vaſhon, of the Fox, in the right breaſt; and lieut. Dobie, near the ſame place. Lieutenant Davis, of the Fox, was wounded by a ball, which entered his left cheek, paſſing through by the neck. Twelve ſeamen and one ſepoy were killed, and 37 wounded, but of the latter, we are happy to learn, many are in a fair way of recovery.

Among the party which ſallied from the fort one European was diſcernible, who appeared to have been wounded in the action; and it was afterward known that five or ſix Frenchmen were within the fort, and directed their operations.

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

SEPTEMBER 30.

ON Wedneſday, the lord-mayor went in ſtate to Guildhall, where, after holding a court of aldermen, they ſwore in the two new ſheriffs, James Shaw, eſq. citizen and ſcrivener, and ſir William Leighton, knt. citizen and fiſhmonger.

Yeſterday a common-council was held at Guildhall, for the purpoſe of the livery nominating two candidates for the office of chief magiſtrate of the city for the enſuing year.—When the uſual forms having been gone through John Perring, eſq. alderman and clothworker, was elected to the office of lord-mayor for the enſuing year.

OCTOBER 1.

A ſhort time ſince, a ſteam engine employed to aſſiſt in clearing the works from water at the tide-mills now erecting in the marſh between Greenwich and Woolwich, was blown up by the force of the contained ſteam. The exploſition was as ſudden and dreadful as that of a powder-mill, and was accompanied with a ſimilar noiſe, which was heard at a great diſtance from the place. The engine was on Mr. Trevethick's plan, worked by the expanſive force of ſteam only, without employing condenſation as in engines in common uſe. It was literally blown to pieces; and by the accident three people were killed on the ſpot; and three others, all that were there at the time, ſo much hurt that two of them are not expected to recover. It was a fortunate circumſtance that the accident happened at a time when the other work-

men were at dinner, or a much greater number might have loſt their lives.

Steam-engines on Mr. Trevethick's plan require a boiler of immenſe ſtrength; for they work with a power ſometimes equal to ſixty pounds on the ſquare inch, while common engines, even Mr. Watts', ſeldom work with more than five pounds. The preſent accident, however, aroſe, not from the impoſſibility of making a boiler ſtrong enough, but from a culpable miſmanagement of a boy appointed to attend the engine. Impatient to finiſh his work, he had put a piece of timber between the top of the ſafety valve and a beam above it, ſo that it could not riſe to allow ſteam to eſcape when produced in greater quantity than required. He even went away to fiſh in the river. In the mean time the engine was ſtopped by another workman, who knew not what the boy had done, and in a ſhort time the miſchief we have ſtated followed. The boy had returned, and was in the very act of removing the piece of wood he had ſo imprudently put over the valve when the exploſion took place. He was the leaſt hurt of all who were near the ſpot.

This accident ought to ſerve as a warning to engineers to conſtruct their ſafety valves in ſuch a manner that common workmen cannot ſtop them at their pleaſure; which may be eaſily done.

From the way in which part of the boiler was bent, which was conſtructed of caſt iron nearly an inch in thickneſs, it is thought the ſteam muſt have acquired an expanſive force equal to 500 pounds on the ſquare inch before it gave way—a force much beyond any that can ever be required.

OCTOBER 3.

By the regulation of the new coal act, carmen are to carry a buſhel meaſure in their carts, and to meaſure, gratis, any ſack which the buyer may ſelect; and if upon remeaſurement ſuch a ſack ſhall not contain three buſhels, the dealer ſhall be liable to a penalty of forty ſhillings per ſack for ſuch deficiency.

The ſale of tea at the India Houſe, which have been repeatedly adjourned, were renewed, or more properly commenced, on Monday. The chairman communicated to the gentlemen preſent a reſolution of the court of directors, by which they agree to abandon the former reſolution to withdraw the draft on the ſtrike. This, as well as the other cuſtomary allowances, will be continued as before. In fact, every thing is placed on the old footing. Mr. Twining roſe, and in a few words returned the thanks of the buyers to the court of directors for the liberality of their proceeding.—The ſales then commenced, and went on very briſkly.

On Thurſday laſt, a dreadful fire broke out in the manufactory of Meſſrs. Clutterbucks and Davies, clothiers, at Hampton, Glouceſterſhire, which conſumed property to a conſiderable amount; it was, however, fortunately inſured to nearly its whole amount, and the principal books preſerved.

Early on the morning of Saturday ſe'nnight, a dreadful affray took place at Spital, near Berwick upon Tweed, between two fiſhermen of the name of Wilſon, and two others of the name of Johnſon, brothers. The quarrel originated over their cups, on the queſtion of family courage, in the houſe of one Thompſon, a publican; when finding a diſpute of ſuch a nature was not to be ſettled by words, they proceeded to blows, and from blows to aſſailing each other with knives; the Wilſons being hard preſſed by their opponents, one of them withdrew to provide himſelf with ſome more deadly weapon, and meeting on his return the father of the Johnſons, whom (with many others) the alarm had drawn to the ſpot, he ſtruck him on the head with a hatchet, and cut away part of his ear. The byeſtanders having by this time ranged themſelves on the ſides of their reſpective favourites, ſome armed with turnip hoes, others with carpenters' adzes, quart pots, &c. the battle became bloody, and laſted a conſiderable time. Many were ſlightly and ſome dangerouſly hurt. A conſtable in the village, who was called from his bed to reſtore peace, is ſince dead of his wounds, and the old man's (Johnſon) life is deſpaired of. A fiſherman, named Nicholſon, alſo badly wounded, who, it is ſaid, was a principal actor in this bloody ſcene, is now in cuſtody. Wilſon has abſconded.

OCT. 8.

On Thurſday morning, John Thompſon, who was ordered for execution on Wedneſday the 21ſt of laſt month, but was reſpited for fourteen days, was executed in the Old Bailey, purſuant to his ſentence, for ſtopping a poor old woman coming from Hammerſmith, and robbing her of a baſket, containing a few very trifling articles, and with ill-treating her in a very groſs manner. He was brought out of Newgate on the platform a few minutes after eight o'clock, snd after ſpending a few minutes in fervent prayer, he was launched into eternity.

Oct. 15.

Thurſday morning, about three o'clock, the powder-mills at Dartford blew up with a dreadful exploſion, which was felt for ſeveral miles round. No lives were loſt.

Oct 18.

Medical advice to Volunteers.—Doctor Latham, in quality of phyſician to the Bloomſbury and Inns of Court Aſſociation, has ſent a letter to the commander of the corps relative to the means of preſerving its health. The following is an extract:—

'Inflammations, coughs, dyſentery, and fever, are the diſeaſes generally to be expected by us, with others alſo of leſs conſequence, which may equally ariſe from unuſual and exceſſive fatigue, from damp and inconvenient accommodation, and from ſtrong and ſudden variations of atmoſphere. Without a regular and uniform warmth of body, health cannot long be preſerved; every gentleman, therefore, ſhould wear a flannel under-waiſtcoat with ſleeves, having a collar button ng round the neck, and ſkirts long enough not to be incommodious;—he ſhould have alſo flannel drawers and woollen ſtockings, and provided either with a cloth cap, or with what is commonly called a Welch-wig:—things at firſt view perhaps of ſmall moment, but when he ſleeps upon the ground, or reſts upon his arms, or is employed on other frequent occaſions of cold and laborious duty, of infinite comfort and importance to him.

'After a long and fatiguing march, or any other great exertion, every gentleman ſhould, if practicable, change that part of his dreſs which may be wet or uncomfortable; but as this cannot often be done, he ſhould walk about gently for a convenient time, and not ſuffer his body to cool rapidly; nor ſhould he lay down until he has regained, or is put into a ſituation of regaining its uſual temperance; and he will recollect, that warm dilating nouriſhment is, under ſuch circumſtances, preferable to ſtrong liquors. And in contemplation alſo of a day of danger and fatigue, I would wiſh him to be reminded, that ſpirituous liquors raiſe a man for a ſhort time above his level, only to ſink him afterwards into a lower ſtate of real inefficiency. A cool head always produces a ſteady, reſolute, and determined hand: and as this is a conteſt in which all the faculties of mind and body muſt be exerted againſt an inſidious, faithleſs, and inſolent enemy, who muſt not hereafter have the mortification of reflecting, that in any individual of the Bloomſbury and Inns of Court Aſſociation, they ſhould have been the leaſt defect or failure in the energies of either.

'The above general plan will for the part ſecure the health of the corps; but as diſeaſe muſt, notwithſtanding, unavoidably happen, application ſhould be made at its very commencement to the proper medical officer: for as in the Bloomſbury and Inns of Court Aſſociation, we are all convinced that there never will be any ſkulking, I ſhould wiſh to ſee the ſoldier as ſoon as he complains, that the opportunity of early relief may not be loſt, and that he may thereby the ſooner be reſtored to his place in the ranks again.'

Oct. 27.

Yeſterday morning the volunteer corps belonging to the London Diſtrict, were reviewed in Hyde Park by his majeſty.

At nine o'clock, the duke of York, in his regimentals as commander in chief, entered the Park at Cumberland gate, and proceeded to the ground. His majeſty come in his travelling carriage to Kenſington, where he mounted his charger. The queen and princeſſes at the ſame time left their travelling carriages and entered a ſociable. The royal cavalcade then entered the Park about five minutes before ten o'clock, in the following order:

A party of the life guards, twelve of the royal domeſtics in full livery, with led horſes beautifully capariſoned.

His majeſty with the duke of Cambridge on his right, and the duke of Cumberland on his left.

A large party of the general officers, in their full uniform, amounting to nearly 50 in number, mounted upon their chargers.

The queen and the princeſſes in their ſociable, with their attendants in a coach and four.

At the moment the royal family entered, the troops preſented arms. The bands ſtruck up 'God ſave the King,' and the moſt enthuſiaſtic ſhouts and exclamations of loyalty burſt forth from every quarter. The royal party proceeded along the carriage road, which was lined by the guards, Surry yeomanry, and other corps; and as they paſſed were greeted with the ſame expreſſions of loyalty and attachment.

At Knightſbridge barracks his majeſty and his royal retinue were received by a guard of honour, compoſed of two troops of the 18th dragoons, and preceded through an avenue cut on purpoſe into the private road next the Serpentine. At that moment his majeſty's arrival was announced, and as he flanked the Serpentine river, a

diſcharge of 21 guns was heard from the artillery ſtationed on the right line. He then paſſed the magazine, and took the ſhorteſt way to the right of the line, the whole of the corps carrying arms, and the reſpective bands playing 'God ſave the King.' The review now commenced, and his majeſty having paſſed along the lines, and taken his ſtation between the equeſtrian ring in the centre of the Park and Groſvenor gate, upon a plot of riſing ground, the whole line fired by vollies.

On the eighth gun being fired, a ſight the moſt grateful was exhibited. Upwards of a hundred thouſand ſpectators were in a moment waving their hats in the air, and three diſtinct cheers were given, the various bands playing 'God ſave the King,' during the whole time. His majeſty remained uncovered during the time, while the queen and princeſſes roſe from their ſeats in the ſociable, and ſtood upright, teſtifying their ſenſe of this triumph of affection and loyalty. This done, the whole line wheeled by diviſions backward on their left, and paſſed before his majeſty in review, the officers of each corps ſaluting as they paſſed, with the colours dropped, and the muſic playing. The corps then formed into ſub-diviſions, wheeled to the right, and paſſed out at the moſt convenient gate on their route to their reſpective quarters.

The whole of the review ended about one o'clock, and a more reſplendent exhibition of patriotic zeal and affection was never before exhibited.

The whole of the volunteers on the ground amounting to 14,500 men.

Yeſterday the ſeſſions commenced at juſtice-hall, in the Old Bailey, before lord Ellenborough, Mr. baron Thomſon, the lord-mayor, the recorder, and the other city officers.

OCTOBER 28.

Canterbury, Oct. 22.—The following is a liſt of the generals of the ſouthern diſtrict, with an account of their actual ſervices:—

General ſir David Dundas—Battle of Minden, America, and continent.

Lieutenant general lord Chatham—Continent, and laſt expedition to Holland.

Lieutenant general Hulſe—America and continent.

Lieutenant general Dundas—America, Weſt Indies, Continent, and Cape of Good Hope.

Major-general Stavely—America and Continent.

Major-general Moore—America, Continent, Holland, and Egypt.

Major-general Mackenzie—Siege of Gibraltar, Continent, Cape of Good Hope, and India.

Brigadier-general Manningham—Continent and Ireland.

Major-general Cartwright—

Brigadier-general Spencer—Holland and Egypt.

Brigadier-general Campbell—

Brigadier-general Broderick—America, Ireland, and Mediterranean.

WEST INDIES.—From the Kingſton Royal Gazette of the 30th of July.—The Vanguard, of ſeventy-four guns, James Walker, eſq. commander, arrived yeſterday at Port Royal, accompanied by the French ſhip Le Duquelne, of ſeven-four guns, taken off St. Domingo, on the 25th inſtant, after a chaſe of twenty four hours. In the action one ſeaman was killed, and one wounded on board the Vanguard. We are alſo ſorry to ſtate, that, in hoiſting out the boats to take poſſeſſion, a lieutenant, a promiſing young man, was unfortunately drowned. This ſhip, in company with the Duguay Trouin, alſo of ſeventy four guns, came out of Cape Francois in the afternoon of the 21ſt inſtant, in a heavy ſquall, in the hopes of eſcaping to France; but on the weather clearing up, they were luckily diſcovered by our ſquadron, and brought to action. When the Vanguard left the fleet, the Elephant was engaged with the Duguay Trouin.

The want of rain has been productive of conſiderable inconvenience in many parts of England, the ſprings have been generally dried up, and perſons not only obliged to ſend their cattle, in many inſtances, ſome miles to water, but compelled to draw it the like diſtance for domeſtic purpoſes. Vegetation has conſequently been ſuſpended, and the dairy farmers, in particular, have been obliged to fodder, which has already raiſed the price of hay. This inconvenience, however, has been happily contraſted with benefits more important, the crops generally abundant, have been all well ſaved; and ſo favourable has been the ſowing ſeaſon, that the works which uſed to occupy not only the autumn and the winter, but part of the ſpring alſo, have been in numerous places, already completed.

BIRTH.

LADY of Thomas Plumer, eſq. of Upper Guildford-ſtreet, a ſon.

MARRIAGES.

MICHAEL Cox, eſq. of Caſtle Town, Kilkenny, to the hon. miſs Prittie, ſiſter to lord Dunally.

John Fox Seaton, eſq. of Pontefract, to miſs Brown, daughter of Thomas Brown, eſq. of Upper Footings.

William St. Julien Arabin, eſq. of Lincoln's inn, to miſs Meux, eldeſt daughter of Richard Meux, eſq. of Bloomſbury-ſquare.

Captain Marcus Anneſley, nephew to earl Anneſley, to miſs Caroline Smith.

William Barlow, eſq. of Chatham-place, to miſs Louiſa Harris, daughter of Richard Harris, eſq. of Eſher.

Thomas James Riley, eſq. of the general poſt office, to miſs Mary Ann Gallop, of Bow-lane, Cheapſide.

Major John Cameron, to miſs Amelia Brock, niece of ſir James Saumerez, bart.

DEATHS.

LADY Anne Elizabeth Somerſet, youngeſt daughter of the duke of Beaufort.

Captain Thomas Dobinſon, at Bombay.

John Hume, eſq. of the victualling-office.

Mrs. Newman, aged 70, ſiſter to the late alderman Newman.

Captain John Few, at Guernſey.

R. Douglas, eſq. of Mains.

Everard Fawkener, eſq.

Duke of Beaufort.

Mrs. Nicholls, relict of Dr. Frank Nicholls, aged 98.

Mr. Sedgwick, of Drury-lane theatre.

Robert Burland, eſq. of Langford, Wiltſhire.

Mr. J. Pearce, of Cadleiſh, Devon, aged 90

Sir John William Roſe, recorder of London.

W. Bell, eſq. of Ripon.

Johannah Bowden, of Widcombe, aged 105.

Captain Thomas Burton, aged 94.

Humphrey Kynaſton, eſq. ſecond ſon of Thomas Kynaſton, eſq. of Witham, Eſſex.

General Craig, the oldeſt general in his majeſty's ſervice.

Lady Helen Sinclair, ſecond daughter of the earl of Caithneſs.

Earl Ludlow.

Princeſs Helena Powlona of Mecklenburgh, ſiſter to the emperor Alexander of Ruſſia.

Mr. E. Sheaf, of Offenham, Worceſterſhire, aged 83, and ſhortly after Mrs. Ann Sheaf, his wife, alſo aged 83.

BANKRUPTS. From the GAZETTE.

SEPTEMBER 27.

W. ROSS, Liverpool, merchant.

J. Rudgett, Blackburn, in Lancaſhire, muſlin manufacturer.

J. Croke, Morgan's-lane, Southwark, ſaleſman.

R. Cox, Saxmundham, Suffolk, money ſcrivener.

W. Lawſon, Mancheſter, grocer.

J. Unthank, and R. Meredith, Mancheſter, manufacturers.

R. Meek, Eccleſhall, Stafford, grocer.

E. Eagleton, Cheapſide, grocer.

T. Pitter, Jermyn-ſtreet, St. James's, laceman.

OCTOBER 1.

G. Dawes, Rood-lane, Fenchurch-ſtreet, brandy-merchant.

A. Pugh, Chatham, Kent, ſhopkeeper.

A. Johnſtone, Moorfields, merchant.

OCTOBER 4.

D. Cannon, Warwick-court, Holborn, chymiſt.

A. Dalgairns, W. Bruce, and J. Bridge, Liverpool merchants.

J. R. Battier, and J. J. Battier, Gould-ſquare, Crutched-friars, merchants.

J. Wanklin, Knighton, Radnor, merchant.

R. Hatterſley, Doncaſter, Yorkſhire, grocer.

W. Urquhart, Sion College-gardens, merchant.

B. James, Northampton, bootmaker.

OCTOBER 8.

T. Johnſon, St. Martin's-court, Leiceſter-ſquare, umbrella-maker.

W. Ogilvie, and J. Ogilvie, Saville-row, Weſtminſter, army-agents.

OCTOBER 11.

J. Hague, and J. M. Sawyer, Tower-Royal, merchants.

D. Cannan, Warwick-court, Holborn, chymiſt.

R. Ivory, St. Clements, Oxford, upholder.

J. Salmon, Great Clacton, Eſſex, linen-draper.

S. Dyſon, Soyland, Yorkſhire, merchant.

OCTOBER 15.

B. Siſſmore, and R. Croſkey, Baſinghall-ſtreet, merchants.

R. Emerſon, Needham-market, Suffolk, miller.

T. Dukes, Ratcliffe-highway, ſhopkeeper.

E. Baines, Leiceſter, woolſtapler.

J. Smith, Briſtol, tanner.

W. Dalton the elder, Fox and Knot-yard, Snow-hill, dealer in hay.

C. Martemont, Rathbone-place, Oxford-ſtreet, ſtraw-hat manufacturer.

J. Willy, Oxford-ſtreet, trunk-maker.

C. R. Ellis, Middle New-ſtreet, Fleet-ſtreet, jeweller.

OCTOBER 18.

T. P. King, West Cowes, Isle of Wight, linen-draper.

R. Williams, Bodychein, and W. Williams, Penmorsa, Carnarvonshire, dealers.

J. Wood, Broad-street, Ratcliff, linen-draper.

B. Watson, Mansfield, Nottinghamshire, carpenter.

W. Painter, Mixbury, in Oxfordshire, farmer.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

HUTTON's Remarks upon North Wales, 8vo, 7s 6d.

Addisoniana, consisting of Anecdotes, &c. 2 vol. 12mo, 10s 6d.

Godwin's Life and Age of Chaucer, 2 vol. 4to, 3l 13s 6d.

Wilkinton's Elements of Galvanism, 2 vol. 8vo, 18s.

Wright's Instructions for Youth, 12mo, 3s.

Human Frailties, 3 vol. 12mo. 10s 6d.

Union, 3 vol. 12mo, 10s 6d.

Mount Pausilippo, 5 vol. 12mo, 1l.

Blackburne's Observations on the Scarlet Fever, 8vo, 3s 6d.

Blair's Anthropology, or Natural History of Man, 8vo, 5s.

Shepherd's Sermons on several Occasions, 8vo, 6s.

Alvar and Seraphina, 2 vol. 12mo, 7s.

Edwin, or Heir of Ella, 3 vol. 12mo, 12s.

Essays on the Art of being Happy, 2 vol. 12mo, 7s.

Sketches on the Intrinsic Strength of France and Russia, 4to, 12s.

Ethelston's Suicide, with other Poems, small 8vo, 5s.

Somerville's (Elisabeth) Preludes to Knowledge, 18mo, 2s 6d, bound.

Mother and Daughter, 3 vol. 12mo, 10s 6d.

Monk of Hennaues, 2 vol. 12mo, 7s.

Remorseless Assassin, 2 vol. 12mo, 7s.

Winterbottom's Account of the Africans near Sierra Leone, 2 vol. 8vo, 15s.

Cartwright's Armine and Elvira, with other Poems, 12mo, 5s.

Journal of an Excursion amoug the Swiss Landscapes, 12mo, 3s 6d.

London Practice of Midwifery, 12mo, 6s.

Adolphe and Blanche, 3 vol. 12mo, 12s.

Garrard's Seaman's Preceptor, 8vo, 8s, half bound.

AVERAGE PRICES of CORN,

October 15, 1803.

By the Winchester Quarter of 8 Bushels.

Inland Counties.

	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Middlesex	58	9	46	0	25	8	28	8
Surry	60	0	46	6	25	4	26	4
Hertford	55	7	38	6	23	9	25	4
Bedford	54	9	34	9	21	6	22	3
Huntingdon	53	10	—	—	21	2	21	4
Northampton	55	2	31	0	22	10	22	3
Rutland	56	3	—	—	24	0	21	0
Leicester	56	3	—	—	24	2	22	0
Nottingham	62	0	40	0	28	8	25	0
Derby	61	0	—	—	28	0	23	10
Stafford	55	5	—	—	28	3	25	4
Salop	47	11	33	8	26	0	22	8
Hereford	46	9	32	0	23	7	23	7
Worcester	50	8	36	2	27	2	26	7
Warwick	54	5	—	—	26	0	27	7
Wilts	51	4	—	—	25	6	24	0
Berks	57	0	—	—	24	8	27	1
Oxford	53	2	—	—	22	1	23	3
Bucks	52	8	—	—	24	2	24	10
Brecon	51	2	32	0	23	2	20	0
Montgomery	43	2	—	—	—	—	19	2
Radnor	45	6	—	—	25	9	22	1

Maritime Counties.

Essex	59	0	45	6	22	8	29	2
Kent	60	1	40	0	27	4	29	6
Sussex	54	4	—	—	27	8	27	8
Suffolk	54	10	42	0	21	3	25	11
Cambridge	56	8	—	—	23	2	20	3
Norfolk	54	4	28	0	20	7	21	0
Lincoln	57	0	28	0	24	7	19	7
York	53	6	37	5	20	7	21	9
Durham	53	0	—	—	27	2	23	2
Northumberland	49	0	34	2	22	8	22	0
Cumberland	52	11	38	4	27	0	23	5
Westmorland	60	4	49	4	26	2	23	4
Lancaster	58	0	—	—	29	8	25	11
Chester	50	4	—	—	—	—	22	8
Flint	48	11	—	—	25	9	21	2
Denbigh	51	8	—	—	—	—	19	2
Anglesea	50	0	—	—	20	0	—	—
Carnarvon	56	4	36	0	23	10	16	0
Merioneth	58	10	40	8	26	8	18	8
Cardigan	50	9	—	—	18	0	13	4
Pembroke	48	1	—	—	23	10	15	0
Carmarthen	59	4	—	—	24	0	16	0
Glamorgan	50	3	—	—	24	1	18	10
Gloucester	50	6	40	5	23	5	23	9
Somerset	55	3	—	—	24	8	21	10
Monmouth	51	10	—	—	23	6	—	—
Devon	55	11	—	—	23	7	21	8
Cornwall	54	8	—	—	25	8	20	3
Dorset	52	7	—	—	24	0	24	3
Hants	53	4	—	—	24	5	25	3

Average of England and Wales.

Per Quarter	53	11	38	0	24	7	22	8

October 27—Peck Loaf 3s 4d.

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL, September 1803.

D.	H.	Baro.	T. out	T. in	H.	C.	Wind.	Weather, &c.	Rain 0,99
1	7	30,41	50	61	55	4	NW 1	. less cloudy at times	
F	2	30,43	61	60,5	51	4	NW 1	. fine. hazy eve	
2	7	30,42	51,5	58,5	56	h	WNW 1	not cloudy	
	2	30,38	66	62	54	3	WNW 1	. clear night	
3	7	30,39	56,5	62	59	1	WNW 1	hazy. cloudy at times	
	2	30,34	69,5	66	53	5	NW 1	. fine	
4	7	30,49	50	61	51	1	N 1		
	2	30,50	59,5	61,5	43	2	N 2		
5	7	30,55	45	55	52	1	N 1	hazy	
	2	30,52	60,5	59	44	1	W 1		
6	7	30,52	50	56	55	1	W 0	hazy	
	2	30,52	64,5	61	46	1	W 1		
7	7	30,52	52,5	59	54	1	W 0	hazy. thick upward. brighter	
	2	30,47	66	63,5	52	2	W 0	hazy. clear night	
8	7	30,40	55	61	54	1	W 0	hazy	
	2	30,36	70,5	65	49	1	W 1		
9	7	30,37	53	61	53	2	W 1		
	2	30,39	69,5	65,5	50	2	WNW 1		
10	7	30,47	52	60	52	2	WNW 1	hazy	
	2	30,44	63	63	49	1	WNW 1		
11	7	30,24	54,5	60,5	53	2	W 1		
	2	30,24	70	65	49	3	NNW 2	. cloudy night: fine	
12	7	30,48	47	58	51	2	N 1		
	2	30,48	61,5	63,5	45	3	NE 2		
13	7	30,50	43,5	55	53	1	NNE 1	hazy	
	2	30,48	58,5	57,5	45	2	ENE 1	. hazy eve. clear	
14	7	30,46	46	55	51	3	E 1	hazy. thick upward. fine	
	2	30,40	60	57,5	47	1	E 1		
15	7	30,28	46,5	55	56	1	E 1	hazy	
N	2	30,17	61	58	45	2	NE 1		
16	7	30,08	47	55	52	1	SSW 1	hazy	
	2	29,99	53	58,5	46	2	W 1	hazy. cloudy. fine night: rain. fine	
17	7	29,76	52	58	51	1	W 1	: cloudy.	
	2	29,84	57,5	59	49	5	WNW 1	. fine. clear night	
18	7	29,91	46	54	52	3	NW 1	hazy	
	2	29,91	58	57,5	45	2	SW 1	. cloudy. fine. little wet at eve. clear	
19	7	29,99	49,5	55	54	f	W 0	. cloudy. much gentle rain: less cloudy	
	2	29,97	58,5	58	61	4	SSW 1	. fine night	
20	7	29,75	54,5	58,5	59	3	SSE 1	. cloudy. much rain	
	2	29,53	57	59.5	62	5	S 1	rain. chiefly fine but rain at times	
21	7	29,40	49,5	54,5	59	5	W 2	little rain. less cloudy	
	2	29,77	56,5	57,5	54	4	WNW 3	. less wind: fine	
22	7	30,12	41,5	53	56	1	WNW 1	hazy. rather cloudy	
	2	30,18	54	54,5	52	4	WNW 1	. thick upward at night	
23	7	30,23	45,5	52	55	h	W 1	not cloudy. foggy. clearer and little cloudy	
	2	30,27	54,5	55	51	4	WNW 1	. clear night	
24	7	30,44	40,5	51	54	1	NNW 1	little foggy. fine	
	2	30,47	54,5	54	51	3	N 1	. thick upward at night. clear	
25	7	30,51	42	51,5	55	f	N 0	not cloudy. fine	
	2	30,52	58,5	56	53	2	W 1		
26	7	30,54	45	52,5	59	f	WSW 1	not cloudy. fine	
	2	30,50	59	56,5	53	1	S 1		
27	7	30,47	44,5	53	58	f	E 1	not cloudy. fine	
	2	30,40	59,5	57,5	52	1	E 1		
28	7	30,34	49,5	55	60	h	NE 1	not cloudy. fine	
	2	30,37	61	59,5	50	1	E 1	hazy	
29	7	30,09	47	55	58	1	E 1	hazy	
	2	29,98	61	60,5	54	1	E 1	hazy	
30	7	29,88	49,5	56,5	61	f	E 1	. more foggy: rain	
F	2	29,82	58	59,5	61	f	E 1	rain. wind NW and cloudy. clear night	

PRICES of STOCKS, from September 27 to October 27, 1803, both inclusive.

By Anthony Clarke, Stockbroker, No. 29, Princes-Street, Lothbury.

Days	Bank Stock. shut.	3 per C. reduced. shut.	3 per C. consols.	4 per C. Anns. shut.	5 per Ct. Ann. 1797 shut.	Navy 5 per Ct.	Long Anns. shut.	Short Anns. shut.	India Stock.	Imperial 3 per C.	Imperial Ann.	Exc. Bills 3½d p. day	Exc. Bills 3d per day	English Lot. Tic.
27			53⅞ ½			87 ¼				52 ¼				
28			53½ 52½			87				52 ⅛				
29														
30			52 ¾ ⅝			85 ½				51 ½		3s dif.		
1			52 ¾ ⅝			85 ½								
3			52 ¾ ⅝			85 ½								
4	142		52 ¾ ⅝			85 ½			161	51 ½		2s dif.		
5			52 ¾ ⅝			85 ½				52		3s dif.		
6			53 ¾ 52⅝			85 ½								
7	142		52⅞ ⅝			85 ½			161	52				
8			52⅞ ⅝			85 ½								
10			52⅞ ⅝			85 ½						2s dif.		
11	138	51 ⅞	52⅞ ⅝	66 ⅝	87 ¼	85 ½	15 ¼	3	161					
12	139	52 ⅛	52 53⅝	66 ¼	88 ⅛	85 ½	15 ¼		160 ½					
13		52	52 ¾ ⅝ 53	66 ⅜	88 ⅛	85 ½	15 ¼							
14	138½	52 ⅛	53 ¼ 52¼	67 ¼	88 ⅛	86 ⅛	15 ¼		161			2s dif.		
15	138½	51 ⅞	52 ¾ ⅝	66 ¼	87 ⅛	85 ⅞	15 ¼		161			2s dif.		
17		51 ¾	52⅞ ¾	67	87 ¼	86	15 ⅛	3						
18														
19														
20	139¼	52 ⅛	53¼ 52½	67 ⅛	87 ⅞	86 ⅛	15 ¼	3	162					
21	139¼	52 ⅛	52¾ 53⅛	67 ⅛	88	86 ⅛	15 ⅛		163					
22		52 ⅛	53 53¼	67 ⅛	88 ¼	86 ⅛	15 ⅛	3	162 ½					
24	141	52 ¼	53 ¼	68	88 ¼	86 ¼		3	163					
25														
26														
27		52 ¼	53¼ ¼	68 ½	88 ⅛	87	15 ½							

☞ In the 3 per Cent. consols. the highest and lowest Price of each Day is given; in every other Article the highest Price only, the Long, Short, and Imperial Annuities excepted, which are given within a fixteenth of the highest Price. In the different Funds that are shut, the Prices are given with the Dividend till the Days of Opening.